ESSENTIALS

IN

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

THE ROMAN WALL [1]

(FRONTISPIECE)

THE picture shows the Romans repairing part of the Great Wall built by the Emperor Hadrian early in the second century A.D. The wall extended from Wallsend on the Tyne to Bowness on the Solway, a distance of about seventy-three miles and a half. The Romans are here represented as employing British labor on the Wall. The stonemasons are at work under the directions of a Roman centurion; an occasional arrow from Pictish marauders in the bushes outside keeps the workers in a state of anxiety, while the bowmen on the wall retaliate. In constructing the wall the Romans used wedge-shaped stones for the outer part. They filled up the inner part with rubble and mortar, the thin end of the wedge-shaped stones being inside; the mortar as it was poured in welded the inner and outer parts together into a solid whole. A tower, castellum, is shown in the middle distance One of these towers occurred at intervals of a mile along the whole length of the wall, and there were also smaller towers at a distance of two hundred yards from each other.

In the camp below is shown the general of the garrison with a detachment of troops, conducting an embassy of "Winged Hats" or Norsemen round the fortifications. They are much interested in a catapult which has just arrived in camp.

[1] *Reproduced by permission from the picture by H. J. Ford. (Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures.)*

THE ROMAN WALL

ESSENTIALS

IN

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

BY

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DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY OF MY FATHER

SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE, Ph.D.

CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AT SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK
FOR THIRTY-SEVEN YEARS; WHOSE SYMPATHETIC INTEREST
AND ENCOURAGEMENT WERE OF INESTIMABLE
VALUE IN THE WRITING OF THIS BOOK

PREFACE

THE recommendations of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association and the appearance of the New York State Regents' Syllabus in History first encouraged the author to offer these essentials in early European history for Part I of the course in Modern History. Since the publication of the first edition, the sub-committee on social science of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Educational Association, in Bulletin 41 of the United States Bureau of Education, made definite recommendations for the division of European History into two units, the first, European History to the Eighteenth Century with English Colonial History, the second, European History from the Eighteenth Century to the present day. The Department of Education in New Jersey is in full accord with this course of study. In New York State the newer courses are being widely adopted, and in New England there is a strong movement in their direction.

In the selection of these essentials, many details formerly deemed vital to a knowledge of history have been purposely omitted in an attempt to mirror the customs and life of the people and to explain the meaning of the great economic, social, and political movements of ancient, medieval, and early modern times, always having in mind their influence on present civilization.

The sixteenth chapter of the original book is omitted from this edition, because its material is presented in the introductory chapter of Knowlton and Howe's "Essentials in Modern

European History," which is designed as the text-book for the year following that given to this course.

The author desires to acknowledge the assistance given him in the preparation of this book by the following persons: Dr. James Harvey Robinson of Columbia University, Dr. Livingston Rowe Schuyler of Columbia University, Dean Benjamin H. Ripton of Union College, Dr. Frank S. Hoffman of Union College, Dr. J. H. Logan of Rutgers College, Dr. D. C. Knowlton of the Central High School, Newark, N.J., Dr. H. M. Maxson, City Superintendent of Schools, Plainfield, N.J., Superintendent I. W. Travell of Ridgewood, N.J., Mr. Harold F. Biddle of the Plainfield, N.J., High School, Miss Grace E. Per Lee of the Cortland, N.Y., State Normal Faculty (now Mrs. Harry Howe of Sioux Falls, S.D.), Mr. C. H. Douglas of Boston, Mass., Mr. G. H. Fisher, Jr., — Miss E. K. Cumming, Miss Esther Egerton, and Miss Cornelia Lounsbury, all of Plainfield, N.J. To the last-named the author is indebted for many of the maps and for the index. The author also desires to give credit for aid in preparing the present edition to Miss Jessie C. Evans of the William Penn High School for Girls, Dr. J. Lynn Barnard of the School of Pedagogy, and Prof. D. Montford Melchior of Girard College, all of Philadelphia, Pa., and to Dr. D. C. Knowlton of the Central Manual Training and Commercial High School, and the Misses Ethel A. Jacobs, Helen G. Stevenson, Maude E. Emery and Mr. Arthur Wakefield of the South Side High School, all of Newark, N.J. The author desires also to make acknowledgment for the use of illustrative material found in Longmans' " Historical Pictures," Gardiner's " Students' History of England," Grant's " European History," Bournes' " Medieval and Modern History," Woodburn and Moran's " American History," Becchetti's " Restorations of the Roman Forum," " Kunst und Geschichte," and the collections of the Metropolitan Museum.

SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE

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EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

1. Nature and Methods of Historical Study. — History is a record of the life of mankind. In its broadest sense it includes all that has influenced man as well as all that man has ever done, written, or even thought. In studying history it is necessary to limit attention to those periods concerning which there remain sources of information. Historical sources are of many kinds: books which record the events of certain times; carvings and inscriptions on buildings or statues; remnants of costumes, implements, buildings, etc.; even the remains of the dead. From a study of such sources scholars are enabled to construct an account of how man lived at different stages of his development.

We study history chiefly to understand what is going on in the world. We must learn not only how things have happened, but also why they have so happened. By getting this information we strengthen the memory. When we put together various related facts and bits of information in order to understand why things happened in a particular way, we are training our reasoning powers. History trains the memory and reasoning faculty and fits us to take part in the political affairs of our country. There are different ways of studying history. The simplest or text-book method involves a close study of one or more manuals, together with questions and answers in class, or written tests and examinations. Another method requires the use of a series of topics embodying the essential features of a certain period. Upon these topics, in the form of an outline or syllabus, the student builds up his

knowledge of the period studied by reading extracts from the various authorities, source-books, and manuals to which he has been referred.[1]

Physiography   **2. Relation between History and Other Fields of Knowledge.** — The relation between history and physical geography is very close. Climate, rainfall,[2] and the character of the soil have always been important factors in determining the occupations and social relations of man. Culture first began in warm climates and in lands whose soil was very fertile. The earliest historic races were those which first began to cultivate their lands. Their nearness to large bodies of water, by offering opportunities for commerce and the interchange of ideas, gave certain nations an earlier civilization than their neighbors. The adaptability of the soil of certain countries to particular crops has often moulded history to a far-reaching extent. For example, the soil of Virginia is well adapted to the cultivation of tobacco. This led to the importation of slaves from Africa to cultivate the crop, and thus shaped the history of our own country.

Economics and Industrial History   Economics, which treats of the industries and wealth-using activities of man, is closely related to political history. The growth of the cotton industry increased slavery and gave rise to several of our gravest political questions, such as emancipation and the tariff. Historians are beginning to realize the importance of the industrial side of history.

The Scenes of the Drama   **3. The Drama of History.** — If we may liken the story of human progress to a drama, we find it divided into four princi-

[1] An authority in history is a standard work prepared by one or more eminent scholars from a study of the sources or of earlier authorities. A source-book is a collection of accounts of historic events or movements in the words of the contemporary writer of these accounts (primary source) or of some writer who lived some time after the events occurred, but who was in a position to know considerable about the events (secondary source). This work is an example of a manual.

[2] Too much rainfall has never proved conducive to a high degree of culture. On the other hand, lands with little or no rainfall have seldom been the scenes of a high state of civilization.

RELIEF MAP OF EUROPE

pal acts. The first scene is laid in two great river valleys, possessing fertile and arable soil, and connecting with each other by means of a narrow strip of hill country. One writer has compared the plan of this scene to a crescent. Over the connecting ridge, passed, to and fro, the traders, the armies and the ideas, to produce that civilization which we may term Near-Oriental. The second scene is laid upon the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. The interests of the people of this period of history are all convergent about this Sea, on whose shores and islands they live. This civilization we call the classical or Greco-Roman. The third scene moves the connecting link from the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. In this scene, the Greco-Roman culture expands and is combined with that of northern Sea-kings, and the resulting new culture throws itself across the broad Atlantic, over whose waves Europe and America find common interests and growth. These three acts we will consider in this book. The fourth act will be studied later. It is sufficient to say that its scene is the whole world, centering about the greater ocean mass of Pacific and Indian Oceans.

The Stage of Ancient History

Let us examine more closely the stage setting of the first two acts. The mass of land which we term the Old World is made up of a series of broad, flat areas, of varying sizes, enclosed on the north-west by a rough border of highlands, cut from east to west in irregular lines by a tangled skein of lofty mountain ridges from the Pyrenees to the Caspian Sea. Most of these flat areas are nearly level, and lie not far above sealevel; as, for example, the plains of Russia and northern Germany in Europe, and the Sahara in Africa. Some are tilted slightly, with one edge under water, and the other in the air. The best example of this is Arabia, which rises in mud flats from the Persian Gulf to the abrupt precipices fronting the Red Sea. It must also be kept in mind that the geography of the Old World is not merely in terms of length and breadth, but also of height. For example, given an area in the torrid zone which

is perfectly level, we may assume the same climatic conditions, the same crops, the same stage of civilization for all parts of it. But when we examine an area which has different degrees of altitude, we find quite varied conditions of climate, each with its own kind of vegetation and human inhabitant.

There is much dispute concerning the origin and distribu- *The Actors* tion of the various races of mankind. People formerly thought that all the races which speak one of the so-called Aryan or Indo-European group of languages had a common origin. To this group belong Greek, Latin, German, and even the ancient language of India. The most recent conclusion is that neither similarity of language nor even marked physical features, such as color, are a sufficient guide in the classification of the races of man. The work of great anthropologists, such as Sergi and Ripley, seems to indicate that there are three principal racial types inhabiting the Old World. Principally around the shores of the Mediterranean are to be found the men of the so-called Mediterranean Race, dark in hair and complexion, and with oval-shaped skulls. In the mountainous world-ridge we find a second type, known as the Alpine man. He is usually brunette in complexion, but more sallow than his southern neighbor. His head is broader and less oval in shape. The third race dwells in northern Europe and is distinguished by its blond complexion, great size, and enormous strength. This type is called the Northern or Boreal man.

4. Primitive Man. — From the earliest times, even before *The Hunting and Fishing Stage* the dawn of historical knowledge, it is assumed that great migrations of peoples of diverse physical characteristics have taken place successively in all parts of the world. The earliest inhabitants of Europe of whom we have any remains were little if any above the beasts of the forest in intelligence. They lived in caves along river banks, in the tree tops of the vast continental forests, or in rudely constructed shelters built upon piles in the mountain lakes. They were engaged in a constant struggle for existence against the savage animals of

those days, beasts much larger, more plentiful, and more fero-
cious than their modern descendants. For thousands of years
they had no knowledge of fire. Their only weapons were rough
pieces of stone; their only occupation to keep themselves
alive. Clothing they did not need, as they were covered with
shaggy hair, as are animals. Their only foods were the flesh
of beasts which they killed by superior cunning, or fish caught
with their hands or on rude bone hooks in the rivers and brooks,
and also in season the wild fruits and nuts of the forest.

Discovery of Fire

Countless centuries after man's first appearance on earth,
some experimenter struck two stones together in such a
manner that sparks of fire flashed forth. This invention, more
wonderful than that of wireless telegraphy, at once marked a
distinction between man and animal.[1] Man learned to cook
his food and heat his dwelling place. He now had more wants

"The Polished Stone Age"

and used polished stone implements and weapons to satisfy
them. He also developed a more complex language to express

Primitive Government

his wants and the beginning of what we call government, in
the family relation. At first the family ties were weak, as
among animals. Little by little the father gained control over

The Family

the members of his family. The head of the family made rules
for the government and was the sole judge of violations of these
primitive rules of conduct or laws, with power of life and death
over his children.

Domestication of Animals

The possession of power over others brings responsibility.
The father was obliged to provide food and shelter for his
family. Animal parents care for their young, it its true, but
this care seldom endures for many years, nor is there any con-
siderable provision made by the parents for the later wel-
fare of their young. In order to insure food for his family,
in case that the animals should leave his part of the world
for new pastures, the early hunter must either follow the re-
treating animals, abandoning his rude shelter for unknown
scenes, or he must make captives of certain animals, feeding

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[1] E. B. Tylor questions the possibility of races living without fire.

and maintaining them when their supply of food was exhausted. Probably it was a long time before the savage hunter thought of adopting the second of these two alternatives. For centuries, generation after generation of mankind roamed from place to place in search of food. When man began to keep herds he ceased to be a hunter and fisher and became a shepherd, — the pastoral stage of his development had begun.

In this stage man made a tremendous stride forward in civilization. He left the caves and erected temporary dwellings of skins or of tree-bark wherever his herd wandered in search of pasturage. Industries, such as cloth-weaving and the making of rude pottery, commenced in this stage. Groups of interrelated families began to associate together, and reached the second stage of political development — the clan. Whenever wander-

FLINT ARROW HEAD
A product of the rough stone age.

ing families met, each found the other in possession of desirable articles. A wish to exchange these articles led to barter or the beginnings of trade.

As time went on it became harder and harder to find pasture grounds because of the constantly increasing pastoral clans with their herds of animals. In the pastoral stage men had not thought that the grazing grounds would ever be exhausted and therefore had sowed no fields, trusting that they would find sufficient fodder in the next halting place. Some men, wisely foreseeing that a time of scarcity was sure to come if they made no provision for the future, settled down in one

CUTTING INSTRUMENT
Showing the advance over the rough stone age in making instruments — the stone is smoothed and polished.

place and began to cultivate the soil. When this became the prevailing custom, man had reached the agricultural stage.

Primitive Tools and Weapons

Savage man made use of the first stick or conveniently shaped stone that came to his hand for his first weapons and tools. He next chipped off pieces of flint and shaped them into axes or arrow heads, binding them on the wooden handle or shaft with thongs of leather, as did the American Indians their tomahawks. Other implements of primitive man were made of bone, ivory, or horn. It is probable that the weapons were invented by men and the useful implements by women. While the men were hunting, the women prepared the food and clothing and made many useful inventions for family use.

The Handicraft Stage

In the fourth stage man learned to make articles by hand. The word "manufacture" (from the Latin, to make by hand) was originally applied to the process of making cloth, etc., in the home by hand, whereas today the word brings up the image of machinery. In this stage man became much more civilized than in the former stages. He now lived in cities or towns for protection and for convenience of trade. He made many articles of great intrinsic value — rare and costly plates, necklaces, and other articles of jewelry. At first he worked in the softer metals, and for centuries employed bronze, an alloy of copper and tin capable of taking a keen cutting edge, for his swords and war implements.

The Bronze Age

To secure protection from the marauding pastoral peoples who surrounded them, the town dwellers built walls around their dwellings. Gradually the cluster of houses within the wall assumed a regular arrangement into streets; public buildings, temples for the worship of their divinities, gathering places for those who made their laws, and market stalls were erected. Family government gave place to rule by the elders of the clan and then to tribal government, in which the clan elders chose a leader to govern the group of the clans or the tribe and acted themselves as a deliberative and advisory body. Several

tribes frequently united to found a city — the city-state of antiquity, which will be explained in a later chapter.

Even as early as the first economic stage of man's develop- **Origin of Writing and the Alphabet** ment, he endeavored to record his ideas. On the walls of caverns, ages ago the dwelling places of men of the old stone age, may still be seen the roughly drawn pictures of the mighty animals with which they had to contend. These drawings may be considered the first step in the art of writing as well as of painting. A considerable advance was made when the picture of an object was used to represent a sound. This step was first taken at a very remote time, yet the Chinese still use a system of writing in which each of the many thousands of Chinese words is represented by a separate symbol. A third step in the development of writing was made when words were divided into syllables, and a separate character adopted for the sound of each syllable. It is evident that fewer symbols will be needed to express syllables than to express words, since many words have one or more syllables in common with other words. It remained for races, who lived within the historical period which we are to study, to invent the alphabet, a small set of symbols each representing a certain sound of the human voice.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

What further reasons can be given for the study of history? Why should history be studied sympathetically? Which method of history study do you prefer? Why? Give additional instances of the influence of physiography on history. Make a list in your note-books of the Aryan languages, showing the groups into which they may be divided. Compare the occupations of primitive man and woman.

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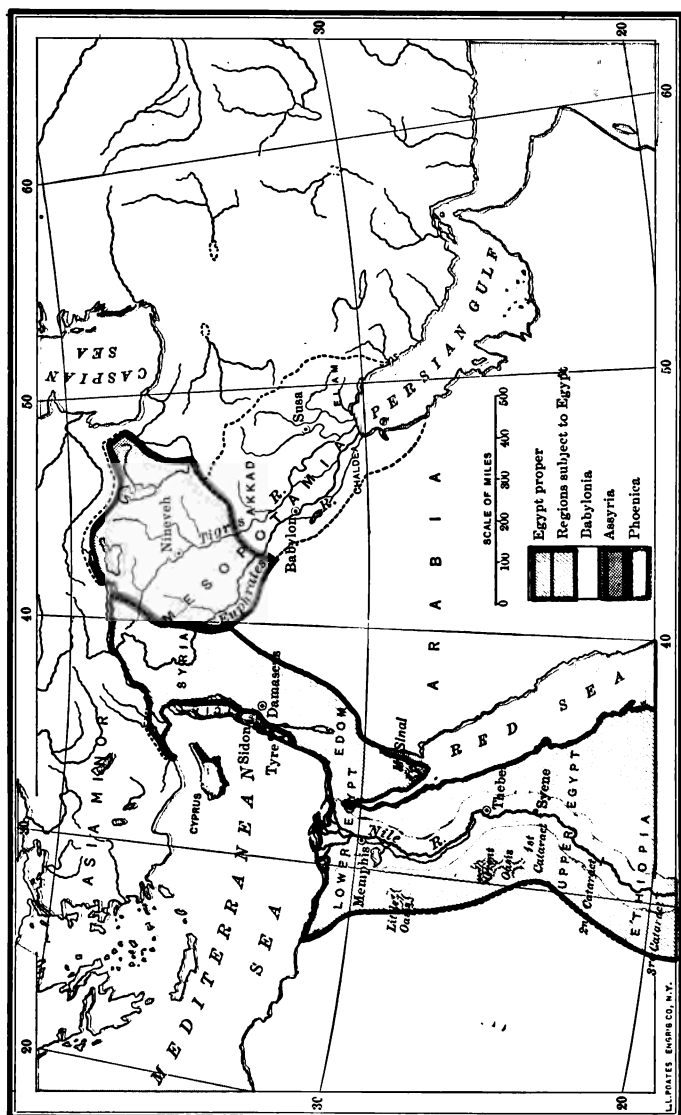
Two Wonderful River Valleys

CHAPTER I

THE ANCIENT MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

5. The Beginnings of History. — The study of ancient _{Two} history begins with a brief review of the civilizations which _{River Valleys} sprang up in two wonderful river valleys of the old world.

The river Nile has its origin in two large lakes in central _{The Nile} Africa, flows northward nearly four thousand miles, and empties into the Mediterranean Sea. A little over a hundred miles from the sea the river divided in ancient times into several branches, or separate mouths. The region through which these branches flowed is called the Delta. Its soil was created by the gradual accumulation of sediment carried down by the mighty river. Above the Delta, the Nile traverses a vast cañon, which it has worn in the sandstone and limestone. The lower portion of this cañon, some five hundred miles in length and from fourteen to thirty-two miles in width, is known as Upper Egypt. In the Delta, or Lower Egypt, and in Upper Egypt was developed one of the two earliest centers of civilization. In this narrow valley, whose total arable area, with that of the Delta about equals that of New Jersey, the majestic river, swollen with the rains of tropical Africa and the waters from the melting snows on the Abyssinian mountains, pours over its banks in June, flooding the level fields on each side and leaving a rich deposit of fertile loam when the waters recede in the Fall. This fertilization and irrigation of the fields has enabled the natives from earliest antiquity to harvest abundant crops with little toil of preparation and has made of this valley a rich grain producing land, abundantly able to support a large population.

In Asia another great river system, the Tigris-Euphrates, favored the growth of civilization. To-day the Tigris River empties into the Euphrates, but in ancient times these rivers emptied separately into the Persian Gulf. The valley between these rivers was called by the Greeks Mesopotamia, " the land between the rivers." It was over five hundred miles long and from fifty to a hundred miles wide. By means of irrigation, from at least 2000 years before Christ, the natives had developed agriculture. As in the case of Egypt, the people of this region were bountifully supplied with the food elements necessary to the growth of civilization.

A BOAT OF THE EARLY EGYPTIANS
Picture of a model found in a tomb in Egypt.

The change from earlier hunting and fishing habits of the inhabitants of these regions to the agricultural stage of development made necessary their organization under some form of government and hence gave rise to the first great states.

6. **Early Egypt.** — While man had existed in the lower valley of the Nile for thousands of years before joining himself with his fellows to form a state, the records show that as early as 5000 B.C. the Egyptians had advanced along political and social lines and had organized several small states in different parts of the valley. Our knowledge of early Egyptian history, based on inscriptions composed of hieroglyphs, or symbols representing both words and syllables, which are found upon the walls of ruined buildings and monuments in

Egypt, was enormously increased by the discovery of a tablet, the Rosetta Stone. This has engraved upon one side three inscriptions: the lower one in Greek; the upper one in a form of picture writing known as hieroglyphic; and the middle one in another style of Egyptian characters. It was observed that

EGYPTIAN ARCHITECTURE

A massive pylon, or temple doorway, two obelisks, or square columns, and six sphinxes, characteristic forms are shown. In the background note the wall of the cañon mentioned on page 11.

wherever in the Greek inscription occurred the word *Ptole-maios* (the Greek form of the name Ptolemy, a king of Egypt), there occurred in the hieroglyphic inscription a certain group of symbols enclosed within an oval ring. Accordingly it was conjectured that this group of hieroglyphs had the same meaning as the Greek word. The scholars at work in deciphering its meaning knew Coptic, the modern form of the ancient Egyptian, as well as Greek. With great effort the few symbols of the royal name were fitted to the Greek

name, and thus their sound equivalents were obtained. So, possessing the key to the Rosetta Stone, these scholars who worked a century ago, were able to interpret the meaning of the entire inscription, and then to apply their knowledge of Egyptian characters thus obtained to the translation of all documents and inscriptions in that language. In this way a great store of knowledge of ancient Egypt has been opened up.

We now know that a family of Pharaohs (kings) made Egypt
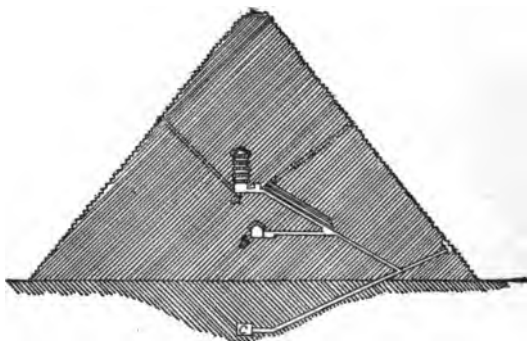
SECTION OF GREAT PYRAMID

a, King's chamber; *b*, Queen's chamber; *c*, chamber cut in rock.

a united state about 3400 B.C., making their capital at Memphis, near modern Cairo. They constructed huge masses of stone for their tombs and erected many massive temples. The largest of these tombs, the great pyramid of Khufu, was erected eight hundred years before the time of Abraham. According to Herodotus, a Greek historian of whom further mention will be made, its erection required the labor of 100,000 men for twenty years. Nearly 2,300,000 stone blocks, each weighing about two and a half tons, went into its construction, and it covers a ground space of over thirteen acres.

The Great Pyramid

The Hyksos　About 2000 B.C. the native rulers of Egypt were overthrown by the Hyksos, a mysterious people who seem to have come out

of Asia Minor and to have been of the same racial origin as the
Hebrews. For two hundred years the Hyksos were the dominant
race. It is possible that during this period wandering clans of
Semitic origin came down into Egypt, as related in the story
of Genesis, and that the restored native rulers treated them
harshly.

This period was one of utmost importance. It marked
the beginnings of commerce between the civilized Egyptians

SPHINX AND PYRAMIDS

Situated at Gizeh, these pyramids are the most famous in all Egypt.
Near them is the equally well-known Sphinx, a gigantic lion with
human head, carved from a great rock.

and the peoples of Asia Minor, which was to be carried later to
the shores of Greece and to stimulate commerce there. The
Hyksos were finally driven out and a new Egyptian dynasty
of Pharaohs began at Thebes that adopted a policy of conquest
and gained control over western Asia to the Euphrates. These
rulers also built magnificent temples at Thebes and Karnak
whose ruins still stand as the supreme type of Egyptian archi-
tecture. But their long wars exhausted the resources of Egypt,
and after only three centuries of renewed vigor, she fell into
decay, never to regain her former glory.

The Theban
Pharaohs

1800 B.C.

7. Religious Ideas of the Egyptians. — It was not only in architecture and engineering that the early Egyptians were advanced; in the museum at Berlin is treasured an old manuscript, perhaps the oldest book in the world, which contains a number of wise sayings attributed to Ptahhotep, a high-born Egyptian of six thousand years ago. Among other things he says, " If thou hast become great after having been little — harden not thy heart. Thou art only become steward of the good things of God." In this and other proverbs this ancient wise man shows that he and his people had reached a high degree of civilization and recognized the duty of each man to his fellow man.

Ptahhotep

STATUE OF RAMESES

To him has been attributed the building of the Temple of Karnak.

Egyptian Religion

In religion the Egyptians were superior to many ancient peoples. Although they worshipped a multitude of gods personifying the powers of nature and lowered themselves at times even to a degraded animal worship, the better classes believed in the immortality of the soul and perhaps in the resurrection of the body.

The Egyptians took great care to embalm the bodies of the dead in order that the mummy of the dear one might be pre-

served from decay until the gods saw fit to call its soul back to occupy it.   This process was so perfected that the bodies of

SECTION OF THE TEMPLE OF KARNAK
From the restoration at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

many ancient Egyptians have been found, of even some of the contemporaries of Moses.

The Egyptians were more moral, more conscientious, and more humanitarian than any other people of ancient times.
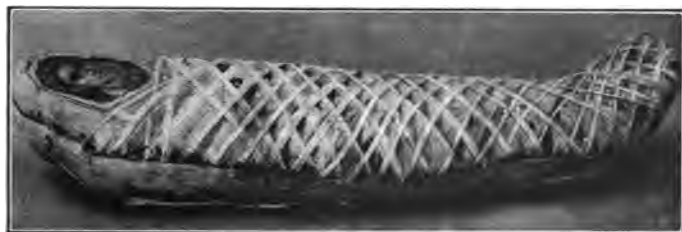
A MUMMY CASE
This shows the care the Egyptians took of the dead.

They believed that the dead had to undergo a trial before being admitted to the better world and that the good deeds were weighed in a balance against the bad.

8. Social Conditions in the Later Empire of Egypt. —
Egypt was the first country of history to have a feudal sys-
tem of landholding. The entire country was considered the
personal property of the king, to be distributed by him to his
favorites as he wished, in return for services rendered. The
King was worshipped as a god, as in modern Japan, hence the
government was an absolute monarchy strongly influenced
by the priesthood. Revolutions and consequent changes of
dynasty were not infrequent, owing to the power of the noble

METHOD OF PRIMITIVE TRANSPORTATION
Pictures of models found in a tomb in Egypt. These were made at least
three thousand years ago.

class. Over a quarter of the land of Egypt was reserved to
the gods; that is, its income went to support the priesthood
and to keep up the worship. The priests formed a highly
educated and politically powerful class and had charge of
such public education as existed. There were all the social
classes that are found in modern society, but real merit could
win its way in any class, so that many a poor boy with the favor
of Pharaoh won his way into important government positions.

The people had occupations similar to those of to-day. There
were physicians, clerks, storekeepers, and trained mechanics,
while among the laborers existed a crude sort of union.[1]   We

[1] The student must not imagine that these occupations were carried on
under conditions similar to those of to-day.

find records of a strike against oppressive labor conditions. The women of Egypt enjoyed far greater advantages and more equality with men than did the women of other ancient peoples. When we remember that this civilization existed in a flourishing condition for at least four thousand years, and that two thousand years ago the forefathers of most Americans of to-day were savages, clad in the skins of wild beasts and roaming the forests of Europe, we must give to the Egyptians a due amount of admiration.

OLDEST MEDICAL PRESCRIPTION IN THE WORLD

Dr. Max Müller considers this a copy of a formula for a skin lotion.

9. The Tigris-Euphrates Region. — Lower Mesopotamia was called Babylonia, after Babylon its chief city. Our knowledge of the early inhabitants of this region is more fragmentary than that of Egypt. The Babylonians made their records not on the rock walls of temples, but on clay tablets baked in the form of bricks, and few of these have been preserved. The University of Pennsylvania has during recent years directed the work of exploration throughout this region and many new records have been found and translated. These and former records indicate that even before the political union of Egypt various powerful cities had grown up on the plains of the lower Tigris-Euphrates. Their inhabitants used a system of hieroglyphs called cuneiform because of the peculiar wedge-shaped characters employed. They understood the science of irrigation, and many of their mathematical and astronomical discoveries have seemed marvellous to the people of later times. The earliest inhabitants of these cities were of

Babylonia

Antiquity of Babylonian Civilization

the yellow race and are known as Accadians or Sumerians. **It**
is possible that the founders of the Chinese empire were colon-
ists sent out by the Sumerians. On the shores of the Persian

HANGING GARDENS OF BABYLON

A fanciful reconstruction of the pleasure palace of Nebuchadnezzar.
In background note the observatory temple built in tiers, used for astro-
nomical study and religious purposes.

Gulf another people, the Elamites, allied in race to the Hyksos,
had been developing strength, and the conquest of the Su-
merians by this people and the subsequent fusion of the two
Babylonian   races made a great empire out of the scattered city-states of
Supremacy   the Tigris-Euphrates region.

From 2500 to 1600 B.C. the Babylonians gained an ascend-
ancy over all of Asia Minor. Their capital was Babylon.

Under Hammurabi (2000 B.C.) this city became famous for its commercial undertakings. Its accurate astronomical researches showed an advanced state of civilization. Hammurabi's code of laws is the oldest legal code in existence, antedating the Mosaic code by over five hundred years. It is important to us as a picture of the social customs in that remote period of history and also because it served as the model for later codes. Many of its provisions are at the foundation of our own legal institutions. For example, an attempt at bribery of a witness is visited with a penalty, and the builder who puts up a building in such a poor fashion that it afterward collapses and injures the tenant is responsible for damages, although we do not inflict the death penalty upon the builder if the tenant dies, as was ordered by Hammurabi.

North of Babylonia between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers **Assyria** lay the mountainous country of Assyria. Not as fertile as Babylonia, Assyria was therefore slower to develop her institutions, and for many hundred years was ruled from Babylon. About 800 B.C., the Assyrians made Nineveh their capital which eclipsed the more ancient city-states to the south and wrested from Babylon the control of western Asia. They carried off the Ten Tribes of Israel into a captivity from which they never returned to history.

Assyria was preëminently a militaristic state; the whole land was a country of soldiers. Its sway extended to Egypt and Cyprus. The campaigns of its rulers were characterized by the use of the most formidable war methods then discovered and by deeds of utmost cruelty and frightfulness. One king alone seemed interested in education. He established a great library of clay tablets at Nineveh. Some of these tablets contain stories of the Creation and the Deluge that resemble those found in the Old Testament.

Babylonia at last regained her supremacy, and Nebuchad- **The Second** nezzar revived the glories of her ancient empire (600 B.C.). **Babylonian** He rebuilt the ancient city and beautified it with palaces and **Empire**

temples.   He conquered the rebellious kingdom of Judea,
carrying off into Babylonian captivity this part of the
Hebrew nation.   The culture of this empire was remarkable.
Vast libraries of the baked clay tablets have been discovered
containing in the cuneiform character historical records and
the details of transactions and of important commercial scien-
tific researches. It is believed that a large part of the population
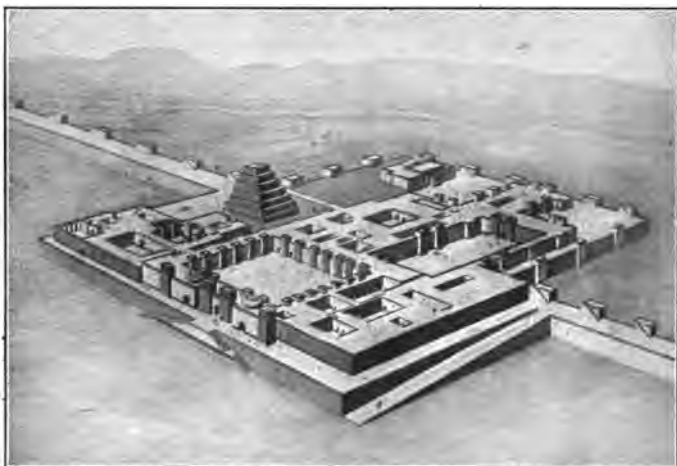
RESTORATION OF AN ASSYRIAN PALACE

of the city could both read and write, while in mathematics
and science they were the foremost people of ancient times.
They first used the seven-day week with its one day for rest,
understood and made practical use of the lever and pulley;
devised a system of weights and measures; and manufactured
the finest cloth materials.   Their civilization was adopted by
539 B.C.   the Medes and Persians who captured Babylonia and over-
threw the Babylonian Empire.   (See page 44).

Like the Chinese and other oriental peoples the Babylonians
were very superstitious, believing in signs and omens and a
host of evil demons, whose anger had to be appeased by magic

rites and charms. Their priests were famed as magicians, whose
knowledge of the ways of these demons and of the means to
thwart their evil designs against mankind was eagerly sought
by the people of all classes.

10. The Semitic Kingdoms of Western Asia Minor. — No
nation is of greater importance to civilization than that of
the Hebrews because of its contributions to the religious
thought of the civilized nations of to-day.   The earliest
Hebrew colonists were pastoral clans from the Chaldean

A BABYLONIAN TABLET
This depicts the siege of a city.

country who settled in Palestine about 2000 B.C.   Closely
akin to the other tribes of that region, they lived a nomadic
life for centuries before developing any political unity.   After
association with the neighboring Egyptian culture[1] they
established a more stable government than in the former
or patriarchal days.   From the first it was theocratic; that
is, they believed God was their king and that He manifested
His Will to them through priests and prophets.   Even after the
establishment of a human monarchy, the power of the priest-
hood was equal or superior to that of the king.   A hereditary

[1] It is possible that two centuries of residence in lower Egypt during the
supremacy of their kinsmen, the Hyksos, had a profound influence not only
upon their political growth, but also upon their religious ideas.   At all
events their religious rites and many of their beliefs showed strong traces of
Egyptian origin.

monarchy was established in the family of David (925 B.C.) which, under Solomon, ruled all the land between the Euphrates, the Lebanon Mountains, and the Red Sea. Solomon was one of the greatest monarchs of his day. He was in alliance with the rulers of Egypt and Tyre. But the empire he ruled was short-lived. After his death it was divided into a northern kingdom called Israel and a southern, Judea. Divided, the Hebrews were unable to withstand the attacks of their eastern neighbors. After two hundred years of separate existence, Israel was conquered by the Assyrians, and, somewhat later Jerusalem, the capital of Judea, was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar. The lands once ruled by Solomon have since successively formed parts of the Persian, Alexandrian, Roman, Mohammedan, and Turkish empires. Perhaps, as a result of the European War of 1914, we shall see the reëstablishment of a Hebrew state in its ancient home.

PILLAR OF A KING OF MOAB (850 B.C.)

This was set up to commemorate a victory in war.

Phenicia   West of Palestine, situated on a narrow strip of land at the foot of the Lebanon Mountains on the shore of the Mediterranean, were the two powerful city-states of the Phenicians, Tyre and Sidon. Hindered by nature from becoming an agricultural people, in order to support themselves they were forced to develop a large commerce. As early as 1600 B.C. the Pheni-

cians had familiarized themselves with the shores of the Medi-
terranean and Black seas, and not long afterward their daring
navigators passed beyond the Straits of Gibraltar to engage   Phenician
in commerce with the natives of Britain, trafficking in silver,   Commerce
iron, tin, and lead, as well as in the spices and oils of the East.
The development of commerce was the chief service of Phenicia

EXAMPLES OF MYCENEAN ART

A. Shows an attempt to capture wild bulls with a net.
B. Shows the domesticated bulls.

to civilization. Phenicia became the pioneer in the carrying
trade from the cultured East to the barbarous West. To
further her commerce the Phenicians established trading sta-
tions and colonies along the northern coast of Africa and in
Sicily and Spain, among them Carthage, destined to become   Phenician
the unsuccessful rival of Rome for the supremacy of the Medi-   Colonies
terranean. It is thought that in carrying on commerce with
the Egyptians the Phenicians borrowed from them certain   Possible
Origin of the
hieroglyphs to take the place of the cumbersome cuneiform   Alphabet
characters which they in common with other Asiatic nations

had used, and that these hieroglyphs became sound symbols, the beginnings of the alphabet. The Phenicians were a superstitious people, materially minded, with low moral standards.
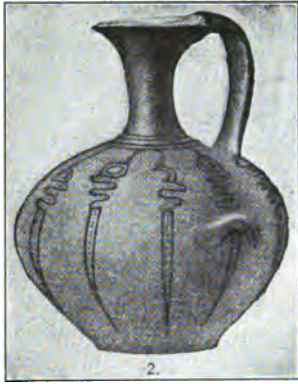
MYCENEAN ART

A. Vase in pottery.
B. Gold leaf ornament.
C. Beaker in gold.
D. Dagger blade — decorated in silver and gold.

They developed no strong political institutions and were constantly under the influence of the stronger nations.

11. The Mycenean Civilization in Crete and Greece. — During the last forty years, explorations in the Island of Crete and along the shores of the Egean Sea have proved the existence of a high degree of civilization in that part of the ancient world as early as 3000 B.C. Dr. Schliemann, a celebrated German archeologist, and Dr. Evans, an English scholar, have excavated the sites of ancient cities on both the Asiatic and Greek shores of the Egean and on the Island of Crete and have unearthed ruined palaces, together with remains of fine pottery, vessels, and implements of gold and other metals, and numerous inscriptions. It is the opinion of archeologists that the Myceneans, so called because many of their remains have been found near the site of ancient Mycene in

LION GATE AT MYCENE

The gate was placed in the city wall at Mycene and gives an idea of prehistoric knowledge of both architecture and art.

Greece, were a short, swarthy race who inhabited Greece, Italy, Spain, and most of the important shores and islands of the Mediterranean from very early times until their conquest about 1000 B.C. by invading tribes. They were well advanced in civilization, peaceful, fond of jewelery and adornment. Specimens of their handicraft in the form of rings, cups, cases, and armor excite admiration for their beauty of proportion and accuracy of design. In Crete they developed a rude alphabet long before the Phenicians are thought to have appropriated Egyptian hieroglyphs for their own, and according to some authorities it was from the Cretans rather than from the

Discoveries in Crete

Egyptians that the Phenicians derived their alphabet. The ruins of their buildings are extremely massive in appearance and contain evidences of great wealth and refinement.

Relations between Egypt and Greece

12. The East at the Close of Babylonian Supremacy. — While Assyria declined, Egypt regained some of her former energy and became for a brief period one of the leading commercial nations. Foreigners, especially Greeks, were allowed to trade in Egypt and to join her mercenary troops. One Pharaoh partially restored an old canal connecting the Nile River and Red Sea and sent his fleets around Africa.

Summary

Civilization first sprang up in the valleys of the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates rivers. Each center developed a high degree of culture, which was carried to the Mycenean Greeks by the Phenicians, and thus left its impress upon the history of later Greece. The Egyptians gave the doctrine of immortality of the soul and certain forms of architecture; the Hebrews taught the doctrine of monotheism; the Babylonians discovered scientific laws; the Phenicians raised commerce to the dignity of a profession and caused a transfusion of ideas throughout the Mediterranean world.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of the Mediterranean world the countries, cities, rivers, and seas mentioned in the chapter and show the boundaries of Egyptian and Chaldean empires at their greatest extent. Make a synchronological chart of the chief periods and events of the ancient Mediterranean world. Make notes from the references given below concerning the origin of "the forms of household furniture, of columns, statues, weapons, seals, the use of the arch, the calendar, the alphabet, moral law, business forms."

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THE RISE OF THE GREEK CITY-STATES

Divisions of Hellas .   **13. The Physiography of Greece.** — Although the Greek peoples inhabited all the shores and islands of the Egean Sea, Greece proper, or Hellas, is the lower part of the Balkan peninsula. In ancient times it was divided into Northern, Central, and Southern Greece. In Southern Greece, which is also called the Peloponnesus, are found the ruined cities of Mycene and Tiryns, the most splendid of the Mycenean period. These were both located in one of the many tiny states into which all Hellas was divided. In addition to this state, Argolis, the Peloponnesus contained Elis in which were celebrated the famous Olympian games, Sparta or Laconia, and Corinth, of which we **Famous Cities** shall hear more fully hereafter. Central Greece contained Attica with its chief city, Athens, the most famous of all Greek cities; Beotia, in which was located its capital, Thebes; and Phocis, containing Delphi, famed for its shrine of the god Apollo. Northern Greece was divided into the partly Greek states of Epirus and Thessaly and was bounded on the northeast by Macedon, whose people became the dominant race in Greece.

Islands of the Egean and Ionian Seas   Famous are the islands of the Egean and Ionian seas: Ithaca, the home of Ulysses, a famous hero of Greek myth; Crete, the seat of an early and glorious culture; Delos, important in the development of Athenian empire; Lesbos, which sheltered the greatest Greek poetess, Sappho; Eubea, ravaged by the Persians in their first attack on Greece. On the western shores of Asia Minor were many Greek cities: Troy of Homer's story; Ephesus, the sacred city of the moon goddess; and Miletus, **The Ionians** famed for her commerce. The Greeks of Asia Minor are commonly spoken of as Ionian Greeks.

30

Instead of separating the various Greek tribes, the Egean
Sea made possible the development of commerce between them.
Furthermore, the products of Greece were particularly well
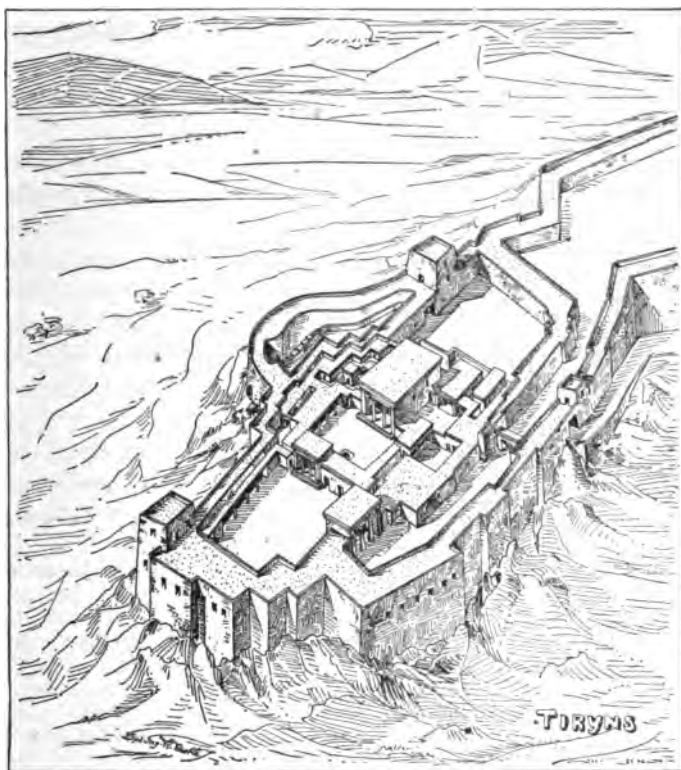
RESTORATION OF THE PALACE OF TIRYNS
An ancient Mycenean fortification unearthed by Schliemann in 1885.

adapted for commerce.   Olive oil, derived from the olive groves
that grew in abundance on the sides of the hills of Greece, and **Agricultural**
wine from the many vineyards, made ideal commercial commod- **Products**
ities, because they represented great value in small bulk in the

times written of by the poet when he describes supreme well-being as follows: " He anointeth my head with oil: my cup of [of wine] runneth over." The freedom of the Greek's life, the ease with which he could move from country to country, learning new customs and broadening his mind, undoubtedly accounts for the freedom of religious and political thought that characterized the race.

Achean Invasion

14. The Homeric Age. — Between 2000 and 1500 B.C., a stranger people entered Greece, called by Homer Acheans. These were men of a ruddy complexion and hair, larger bodied and more barbarous than the Myceneans. After a few centuries of retarded civilization, while the newcomers were picking up the ways of the people whom they had conquered, Greece progressed much faster than the other eastern Mediterranean countries. The intermarriage of races and consequent mingling of the Mycean and Achean civilizations resulted in a complete transformation of Greek society.

Our principal sources of information concerning Greek life in this far-away period of history are the two epic poems, the " Iliad " and the " Odyssey," attributed to a poet named Homer.

The " Iliad "

The Latin Epic of Aeneas

The " Odyssey "

Greek legend told that Paris, a son of Priam, king of Troy, had been one of many suitors among the Greek chieftians for the hand of a beautiful princess, Helen, who chose Menelaus, the brother of the head-chief, Agmemnon. All the suitors had agreed to abide by her decision and to aid her husband against disappointed suitors. Accordingly, when Paris refused to abide by this agreement and carried Helen off by force to his walled city of Troy, the other chiefs began a siege of that city. The poem of the " Iliad " begins when the siege had lasted ten years, and relates the deeds of the great Greek warrior, Achilles, who kills Hector, Troy's hero. There is related elsewhere the stratagem employed by Ulysses to get into the city, — the apparent retreat of the Greeks leaving behind them a gigantic wooden horse which the Trojans drew into their city as a gift to their god. This horse contained within its hollow interior the picked warriors of the Greeks, who, after night had fallen, came out of the horse, took the city by surprise, and destroyed it, together with its inhabitants. The "Odyssey" takes up the wonderful adventures of the hero Ulysses, or Odyssey on his way home from the Trojan War. After twenty years of wandering from one coast to another, he returns to Ithaca, where he drives off the swarm of suitors for the hand of his supposed widow.

To the Greeks and Romans Homer was a real personage, but **Homer** whether he ever lived is doubtful. It is probable that both poems were composed in parts at different times and by different poets. From these poems we can reconstruct the everyday life of both chieftain and peasant during the Homeric or heroic age. These people were mostly in the agricultural or pastoral stages of industry. ' All classes lived on farms and the cultivation of the soil was regarded as the most honorable of occupations. Even the great Ulysses followed the plough. Other pursuits were the keeping of cattle or swine, blacksmithing, shipbuilding, and commerce, while a few men adopted the profession of the leech or physician, of the fortune-teller, or of the musician. There were three elements of government in Homeric society: the head-chief or king, the council of subordinate chiefs, and an irregularly constituted assembly of the common people. The head-chief had no particular social preëminence over the other chiefs, while the common citizen, Thersites, dared to " pour fourth his upbraidings even upon goodly Agamemnon." The council of chiefs was at all times able to control the head-chief.

GREEK GOVERNMENT IN HOMERIC TIMES

Elements	Powers
Head-chief or King.	War-chief, high priest, judge of disputes between other citizens of the tribe.
Council of lesser chiefs.	Selected and advised the King.
Assembly of the people.	Approved the laws made by the King.

Among the Homeric Greeks two religions existed. To the **Greek** ancestor worship of the Myceneans the Acheans added **Religion** a worship of the powers of nature, — the sun, moon, and sea, the thunderbolt and earthquake. Around these phenomena

the poetic Greek built up mythical explanations of all matters beyond their reasoning powers. They personified the powers of nature. The supreme god, whom they called " The God " (Zeus), had the thunderbolt as his weapon to punish those who offended him. The sun was personified as Phoebus Apollo; the wind as Hermes, patron of commerce and messenger of the gods; fire as Hephaestus, patron of the forge and maker of the armor of the gods; the sea as Poseidon. Among the female divinities were Hera, wife of Zeus and goddess of the sky; Artemis, moon goddess and patroness of the hunt; Athena, the goddess of wisdom; and Aphrodite, goddess of love. The Greeks believed in a shadowy future life in Hades which was ruled by Dis, the god of the under-world. These gods were served by priests who performed the religious ceremonies, consisting chiefly of offering up burnt sacrifices of oxen or other animals. The early Greeks were deeply religious and believed that the gods usually acted justly toward mankind; yet some of the Greek stories picture them as having the same passions and failings as mortals. The priests never attained to as great power as a class as did the Hebrew priesthood.

The Dorian Invasion

15. **The Period of Colonization.** — About the year 1500 B.C. a new people spread over Greece, causing a great change in the population of Hellas. At that time the Myceneans and Acheans had become united into a fairly uniform people called Ionians, to distinguish them from the newcomers or Dorians. Some of the Ionians were driven to seek shelter on the shores of Asia Minor, where they settled in cities in the district later called Ionia; but the stronghold of the Ionians was Attica, where developed the city of Athens, the light of all Greece. This period of change

Periods and Motives for Colonization

is sometimes called the first period of colonization. The motives for colonization are three-fold: the desire to escape religious, political, or economic oppression; the love of adventure and of change; and the ambition for acquiring power, or love of leadership. The first movement of colonization was actuated chiefly

by the first of these motives. The Dorians drove the Ionians from their ancestral fields, forcing them to find others or starve. The second period of colonization began about two hundred years after the Dorian invasion and continued for several hundred years. It was caused by all three motives.

The method of founding colonies is worth studying. The first thing done was to consult the oracle at Delphi, whether the expedition would be successful. There, in a temple erected in honor of Apollo, the Pythia or prophetess seated herself upon a tripod, or three-legged stool, near a crevice in the rocky floor of the temple, and under the influence of a gas which escaped from the crevice, uttered incoherent words which the priests pretended to interpret. They usually so worded the response that it might be taken to mean anything. Then, whatever happened, it appeared that the Pythia had prophesied truly. An example of the double meaning of some of the oracular responses is the famous answer to the question of the Athenians regarding the outcome of the impending battle of Salamis with the Persians: " Salamis, thou shalt cause sons of women to perish, either when the grain is sown or when it is harvested," a wonderfully ambiguous sort of answer. *The Oracle at Delphi*

If the oracle's response seemed favorable, a leader for the expedition having been chosen, volunteer emigrants were invited to embark with their families and movable possessions, taking with them also sacred fire from the home altar, which was carefully tended until they were able to place it on the new shrine. The new city begun, an altar was erected therein, and with impressive religious rites the old fire was transferred to the new altar as a symbol of the binding tie between colony and mother city. *The Method of Colonization*

This tie was strongly felt by most of the Greeks, although colonies were usually independent of the parent city. Athens founded the only colonies not possessing this independence. A few of her colonies were garrisoned and governed by Athenian settlers, who retained all rights of citizenship in Athens. This

type of colony is called a cleruchy.   The cleruchy and the true colony were the models for all other colonial efforts.
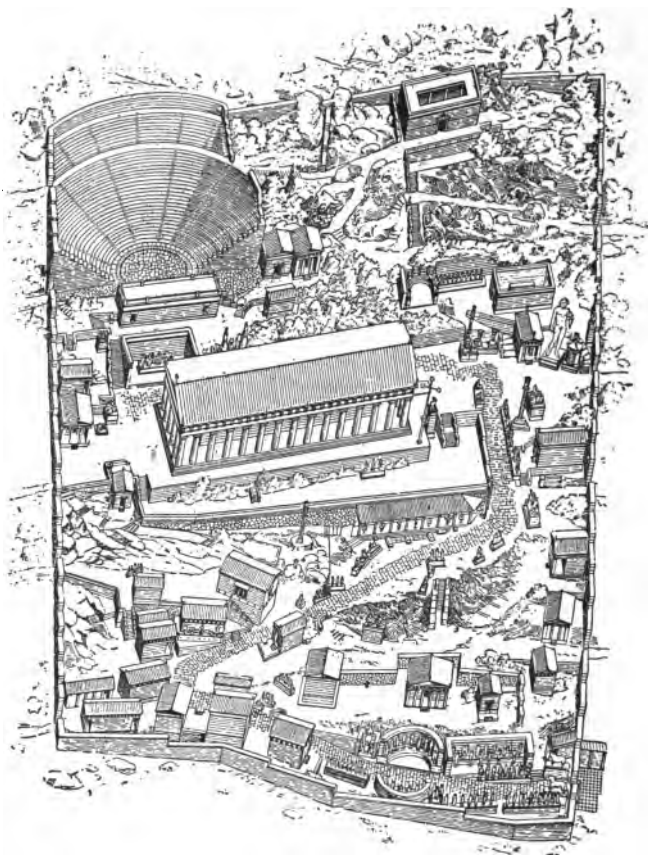
THE ORACLE OF APOLLO RESTORED
The sacred shrine is near the center.   The amphitheater is on the hillside above the temple.

Extent of
Greek
Colonization

At the close of the colonizing era, the Greeks had expanded far beyond the boundaries of Hellas.   Their merchants had trading stations along the shores of the Black Sea whose grass-

GREECE AND HER COLONIES
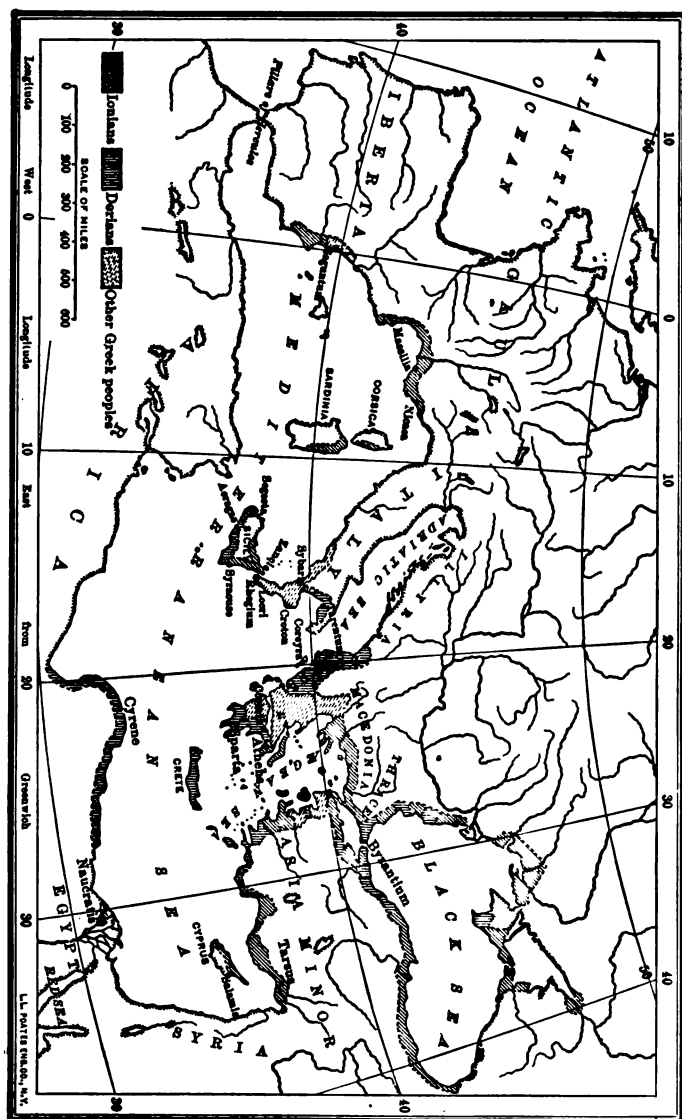
lands became the granary of Greece.   Southeast of Ionia they
colonized the large island of Cyprus and established trading
centers in Egypt at Naukratis and Cyrene.   Crossing the
mouth of the Adriatic, they established flourishing cities in
southern Italy, Sicily, and the far distant shores of France and
Spain.   Under the shadow of threatening Mt. Vesuvius, on the
western coast of Italy, they founded Naples (Neapolis, or New
City).   In southeastern Sicily they founded Syracuse, long
one of the most powerful and cultured of the city-states of

OLYMPIC GAMES

the classical period.   Marseilles was originally Massilia, a
Greek town which was established to further trade with north-
western Europe.

Athletic   Between these widely separated centers of Greek life there
Games   was a close connection of ideals and interests.   Perhaps one
of the chief factors in promoting this intercourse was the national
festival at which contestants from far and near competed in
various athletic contests.   These contests had been held in
several localities from prehistoric times, and by the sixth cen-
tury B.C., four festivals were held at regular intervals.   The

most famous of these were the Olympian games, held in honor of Zeus every fourth year during the summer. The period of four years between one festival and the next was called an Olympiad. The first Olympiad began in 776 B.C., and the Greeks reckoned time from this date by Olympiads. For example, 778 B.C. was the third year of the first Olympiad. Among the sports were the long jump; hurling the discus, a flat disk of metal weighing twelve pounds; throwing the javelin, a heavy spear; wrestling of the catch-as-catch-can type, three falls deciding the match; and a very brutal type of boxing. The victor in the games was crowned with a wreath of wild olive and was greatly renowned. Poems were composed in his honor, and his home city usually rewarded him with wealth and political preferment.

The games were considered as religious ceremonies in honor of their gods. At them representatives of the different Greek cities united in performing the rites of the national religion, and often the relations between the cities were discussed and decided upon. Contests in which poets read their works to the assembled throng were also held. Orators held forth on subjects of general interest. Thus it will be seen that the games were both a great unifying force in Greek life and a powerful factor in intellectual development. In recent times, modern athletes have in a fashion revived these games. Great international contests were held in Athens in 1896 and again in 1906 in a splendid stadium erected by a wealthy Greek. Other contests were held at Paris in 1900, and at the St. Louis Exposition in 1904, in which athletes from all over the world participated. Many of the sports practised at the original games were revived.

16. Sparta. — About 900 B.C. the Dorians, who had settled in the central part of Laconia in the little city of Sparta, organized their government as an oligarchy, or government by the few. The council of chiefs drew more and greater restrictions around the powers of the king, at the same time refusing to the common people a right to share in government. The govern- *Spartan Government*

ment consisted of two kings, who divided power with each
other, a senate of thirty clan-chiefs or elders, and an assembly
of all Spartans capable of bearing arms.   For two hundred
years thereafter the senate exercised the sole political power.
About 700 B.C. the government became slightly more demo-
cratic.   Five officials, called ephors, elected annually by the
assembly, were intrusted with important duties.   Among these
were the following: to make war and peace, to act as judges
over certain cases, to supervise the kings who became comman-
ders in wartime only, to consult with the senate on matters of
state, and to announce laws to the assembly for its approval.

Slaves of the Government   Sparta held in slavery the inhabitants whom she had de-
spoiled of their land.   These were called helots and outnumbered
their masters ten to one.   They had no political rights but were
owned by the government, not by individual Spartans.   The
government forced them to labor for the Spartan citizens in
return for the military service which every Spartan citizen had
to render.

Spartan Education   The government of Sparta was socialistic to the extent that
every man's family and possessions were the property of the
state.   The ideal of Spartan education was to render the citizen
useful to the state; therefore the boys were trained for military
service and the girls were trained in gymnastics so that they
might be strong and well and able to rear healthy children for the
state.   Everything centered around the military traditions of
the city.   The boy was removed from the home of his parents
at an early age and brought up by the state in company with
other lads of his own age.   The Spartans scorned the culture
and refinement of other Greek cities.   Except for a slight train-
ing in reading and martial music, their education was purely
physical.   Is it strange that Sparta for hundreds of years sent
forth the finest armies in all Greece, or that no great name in
art, philosophy, or literature is found in her history?

Origin of Athens   **17. Early Athens.** — With Athens, however, the history of
Greece is chiefly concerned.   Some authorities attempt to

account for the progressive spirit of the Athenians by show-
ing that Athens was made up of so many diverse elements
of population. The Athenians wrote more important books,
built finer temples, erected more beautiful statues, and devel-
oped a freer government than did other Greek cities.[1]

Early in the oligarchic period the " well-born " (nobles) took
from the king all his powers except those of priest and gave

PLAN OF ATHENS

them to new officials chosen from their own number who were
called archons. Not satisfied with having all the powers of
government in their own hands,[2] the " well-born " reduced the
common people of Athens to slavery. There were no written
laws, so the poor people were obliged to endure every imposition
put upon them by their masters. They had to labor on the

Government
by the
" Well-born "

[1] Like all primitive peoples, the Athenians were unable to trace their
early history. So they invented various myths to explain how the city
was built. One of their great heroes was Theseus, who killed the monster
Minotaur in the Cretan labyrinth.

[2] The king, called king-archon, was elected for a short term from the
"well-born." The other archons were "the archon," who assumed most
of the old regal powers, and the polemarch, or war-archon.

estates of the rich for a miserable pittance that was often insuf-
ficient to pay their living expenses. If they got into debt they
and their families were seized by the wealthy landlord and sold
into slavery. At last the common people rebelled against such

Laws of Draco

injustice and demanded that the laws of Athens be written
down, so that the judges (who were always members of the well-
born class) might not make decisions to suit their own interests.
In 621 B.C. the archon Draco was instructed to make a code
of laws. After these laws had been carved on wooden tablets
and set up in the public square the people saw how inhuman and
cruel many of them were.

Solon's Economic and Political Reforms

A few years later another man was appointed archon to reform
economic and political evils. This man, Solon, brought forward
a law, called the " Removal of Burdens," which freed the
Athenians from slavery and debt (593 B.C.).

The " Removal of Burdens " provided: (1) All Athenians
were freed from slavery; (2) Mortgages held by the rich on
property of the poor were cancelled, or, as some think, the
boundary marks on mortgaged property were removed, thus
preventing the holder of the mortgage from locating the land
so pledged; (3) The amount of land that could be held by one
person was limited; (4) Public and private debts were cancelled;
(5) The coins were made smaller, thus benefiting the debtor
class. He also gave to the common people a greater control
over the government and deprived the nobles of most of their
political power. Had Solon not reformed the government of
Athens, the economic reforms mentioned above would speedily
have been set at naught by the rich. He gave to the popular
assembly the right to elect the archons and to try them at the
expiration of their term of office if any charges were brought
against them. He took away the right of preparing laws from
the archons and gave it to a newly constituted body, the senate.
In order to insure popular interest in government, a law was
made by which any citizen who refused to serve his city in war
or who would not assume political responsibilities such as assem-

bly or jury duty, might be deprived of his citizenship.   Solon also insisted on the universal education of the Athenian youth. Solon was one of the most remarkable men of ancient times. Before he had shown his statesmanship he had conducted a brilliant military campaign for Athens.   All his life he was a successful business man; and he also was one of the best poets of his time.

Athens was on the high road to democracy when an unfor- Tyranny at Athens tunate strife arose between factions and temporarily so weak- ened the state that a distant relative of Solon, Pisistratus, took advantage of its weakness and made himself tyrant.   In Greek Tryants many of the Greek cities pretended champions of the people arose, who overthrew the aristocracies and ruled absolutely. These men were called tyrants.   The Greeks meant by tyrant a man who possessed himself of the powers of government by force and without legal sanction.   To some of the people such a ruler seemed very cruel, hence our conception of the word; but his rule was frequently advantageous for a city be- cause many public works were built from the tribute collected from the wealthier citizens, while the poorer class was not crushed under the burden of taxation.   There was no age of tyrants, as some writers have supposed, because such rulers are common to nearly every period of Greek history.   Such a tyrant was Pisistratus, a man of the highest character and ideals, who sought to preserve the forms of the constitution introduced by Solon, while playing the rôle of a political boss.   After numerous conspiracies directed against his life had been thwarted, he became more of a " tyrant," surrounding himself with a body- guard and giving less attention to keeping up Solon's reforms. During his long rule Athens was made a city beautiful, yet he taxed the people heavily to build temples and roads.   The Athenians rejoiced when Clisthenes, another Solon, drove out Hippias, the son and successor of Pisistratus, and restored and made improvements upon Solon's democratic government.

Clisthenes rearranged the wards of Athens, so as to destroy

Reforms of Clisthenes

the old tribal distinctions that had offered Pisistratus an opportunity to overthrow the democracy.   He also threw citizenship open to all residents in Athens and invented a device called ostracism by which dangerous agitators or would-be tyrants could be banished from the city.[1]   The assembly was given greater control over the government.

Beginnings of the Persian Empire

18. The Rise of Persia. — During the lifetime of Draco, the mountain pastoral tribes living east of Babylonia were organized into a kingdom by one of their chieftains, a Mede, who also gained an overlordship over a kindred people called the Persians, living on the eastern shores of the Persian Gulf.   When Babylon revolted from Assyria, the Medes aided in the destruction of their common foe and divided with Babylon the former Assyrian dominions.   Fifty years later, as Pisistratus was entrenching himself in power in Athens, Cyrus, a Persian prince, overthrew successively Media and Babylon with all their tributary states in Asia Minor.   His son added Egypt to the Persian empire and extorted a heavy tribute from the Ionian cities. Darius was the next ruler of Persia who left his mark on the empire.   His work was the construction of the government rather than conquest.   He divided the empire into provinces, called satrapies, in which the civil matters were controlled by a governor, called satrap, while the army was under the command of a general appointed by Darius.

Persian Government

In addition to this plan of dividing authority, an officer, called "The King's Ear," resided in each satrapy and gave frequent reports in writing to Darius.   An inspector, called "The King's Eye," supervised the administrations of all the satraps.   By these officials and by a network of state roads, constructed from one end of his empire to the other, Darius was enabled to bind together an empire of vast extent while he planned to increase its size by European conquests.

[1] Ostracism consisted of an election or ballot to determine the name of the most unpopular citizen of Athens.   The man receiving the votes of six thousand citizens was banished (ostracized).

The Persians were a half barbarous people at the time of **The Persian Civilization** Darius. They had adopted the architecture and literature of the Babylonians. Unlike the nations by whom they were surrounded, the Persians did not worship a multitude of gods. Zoroaster, a Persian prophet of the sixth century B.C., taught that there were two supernatural forces continually at war. These he called Ahura-mazda, the beneficent god of light, symbolized by the sun, and Ahriman, the spirit of evil and darkness. He believed that Ahura-mazda would eventually conquer Ahriman and bind him fast for eternity. These beliefs, together with prayers and hymns, make up the Avesta, the Bible of the Persians. The early Persians believed in truth-telling and in honesty of life and were morally superior to other ancient peoples.[1]

19. Wars between the Greeks and Persians. — The Ionian **The Ionian Revolt** Greeks rebelled against the tyrants whom the Persian ruler had permitted to rule them and, with the aid of the Athenians, captured Sardis, the most important city in the western possessions of Persia. Their triumph was short-lived, for Darius threw a strong army into Ionia and, after a short struggle, forced the cities to accept again the Persian yoke. He turned his attention to Hellas, partly to punish the Athenians and partly to carry out his designs for empire in Europe. His first expedition against Greece was only halfway successful, and the loss of his fleet in a storm postponed for two years the attack on Athens.

In 490 B.C. a large Persian army under the leadership of the generals Datis and Artaphernes landed on the island of Eubea, destroyed the city of Eretria, an ally of Athens, and then crossed to the shore of Attica. They were met on the plains of Marathon **Marathon 490 B.C.** by a small army of only ten thousand Athenians and one thousand Plateans;[2] yet, owing to the superior generalship of Milti-

[1] The Magians, or priests of the Persian religion, destroyed the former high ethical standards of the Persians by insisting on the importance of form and ceremony in worship and by neglecting wholesome living.

[2] The Athenians had sent a famous runner to Sparta with a request for aid, but the Spartans superstitiously refused to allow their army to set forth before the full-moon. In the meantime the battle had been fought.

ades, who is rated as one of the greatest of Greek military heroes,
Its Importance the Persians were totally defeated. The battle of Marathon
encouraged the Greeks to withstand all attempts upon their
liberty by foreign powers. It also prepared the way for Athe-
nian leadership of Greece. It was the first great conflict be-
tween East and West to prevent Europe from being orientalized.
No further attempt to conquer Greece was made by Darius for
ten years, owing to an Egyptian revolt from Persian rule. His
energies were fully occupied in suppressing this revolt.

Party Politics at Athens By this time the democratic party had become the only party
in Athens, much as the Federalist was the only party in Wash-
ington's administration; yet it was on the point of dividing.
Those who were satisfied with the reforms already won and
opposed further progress, who may be called conservatives,
were led by Aristides, one of the greatest Greek statesmen.
Themistocles was the leader of the radical party which favored
further reform. He advocated that Athens should build a large
navy so that she might be prepared if Persia attacked again.
Aristides, pointing to the success of the Athenians on land at
Marathon and elsewhere, seriously objected to the waste of
money involved in the building of a fleet. Themistocles believed
that the matter was one of life or death to Athens and so brought
about a vote to determine popular sentiment. Aristides was
ostracized and Themistocles was encouraged to carry out his
policy.

The Invasion of Xerxes 480-479 B.C. Xerxes, the son of Darius, was a vain man of small talents
and mentally unbalanced. With many boasts and great dis-
play, he led an army of nearly a million fighting men and a fleet
of twelve hundred ships against Greece. When the Greeks
learned that the Persians were advancing they held a congress
of the Greek cities at Corinth, where the question of defence
was discussed. The people of the Peloponnesus selfishly advo-
cated that all Greeks should retire within that peninsula and
fortify the Isthmus of Corinth, connecting it with central
Greece. This would have left Athens defenceless, and there-

fore the Athenians would have none of the plan. Another plan, to attempt to guard the mountain passes leading from Thessaly to central Greece, was adopted. So when the army of Xerxes came through the mountain passes of Thessaly, it was met at Thermopylae by a gallant Spartan band under Leonidas. The Spartans died for their country and established a fame that will last as long as history itself. The Athenian fleet, on the same day, delayed the Persian advance in the straits of Artemisium, and later anchored in the harbor of Salamis, west of Athens, to discuss further plans for defence. Here they were attacked by the Persian fleet,[1] and, to the consternation of Xerxes, who witnessed the battle, the Persians were as decisively beaten on the sea as they had been on the land at Marathon.

The enormous Persian army was defeated soon after this at Platea by the combined forces of Sparta and Athens, and on the same day the Athenian fleet won another signal victory over the Persians at Mycale. The former battle closed the Persian war in Hellas; the second began the struggle to free the Ionian Greeks. Greatly encouraged at their success in resisting the most powerful empire of their day, the Greeks pressed on to the highest development of the intellectual and artistic superiority for which they are famous in history. Had the Persians conquered the Greeks, it is doubtful whether the great achievements in art, drama, architecture, and philosophy would have been brought forth during the next period of Greek history.

Significance of the Outcome of the Wars

[1] When Themistocles discovered that the Spartans were about to desert the cause of the Greeks he determined to force a battle with the Persians in order to hold them. Accordingly he sent a false message to Xerxes in which he agreed to betray the Greeks to him and advised him to block up the harbor of Salamis with his fleet. The stratagem succeeded. The fleet of Xerxes blocked up the narrow mouth of the harbor and the Greeks were caught like rats in a trap, yet they could still fight. In order to win, Xerxes had to capture the Greek fleet. Accordingly he ordered his ships to enter the harbor. This was exactly what Themistocles had hoped he would do. As the Persian ships came through the narrow channel in single file, the Greek ships attacked and sunk them. Aristides returned to aid the Athenians in this battle.

20. Summary of Early Greek History. — The Greek race was made up of at least two stocks, the Myceneans and the Achean-Dorians. (For the Dorians were probably a later wave of invasion from the same stock.) They lived in a land peculiarly adapted to commerce. This commerce led to colonization and to the growth of a wonderful, many-sided civilization. The Spartans stood for military efficiency and for the subordination of the individual to the state; the Athenians believed in intellectual and commercial supremacy and in the utmost development of the principle of personal liberty possible to an age when slavery was an economic necessity. Clisthenes carried on still further the great work of turning aristocratic Athens into a democracy that had been commenced by Solon and checked by the tyranny. During this period the Spartan army was approaching perfection and the Ionian cities were developing intellectual culture and commercial relations, which attracted the attention of the Persians. The Persians developed from a pastoral people to a strong empire under Cyrus and Darius. After having mastered the Orient, they attempted to conquer the Greek city-states. The Greeks won because they were fighting for their homes and on familiar ground; because they were better trained and better officered; finally because their navy was made up of Athenian ships and not of unwilling mercenaries. The Greek victory rescued Europe from the blighting effects of the oriental civilization.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of Greece the principal physical features of Greece; locate the important cities and states mentioned in the chapter; indicate where battles were fought. Relate the stories of Jason and the Golden Fleece, Theseus and the Minotaur, the Labors of Hercules, Cadmus, the Siege of Troy, the Wanderings of Ulysses. Find out how the Greeks reckoned time. Explain the nature and influence of the Greek Olympic games. Compare the Mycenean and Achean civilizations and peoples. Mention some of the important Greek colonies, locate them, and tell by whom founded. Relate the story of typical tyrants, such as Pisistratus, Pittacus,

Periander, and Clisthenes of Sicyon. (Good accounts may be found in Bury, pp. 146–159.) How did Sparta treat deformed children? What was the effect of Spartan education on character? Of Athenian? Read the description of a Persian highroad in Wheeler's *Life of Alexander the Great*, pp. 196–197. Read some longer account of the lives of Themosticles, Miltiades, and Aristides. Compare their political views and services to the city of Athens. Why are the accounts of the battles so brief in this book? Compare the part played by Athens in this war with Sparta's.

An almost indispensable work for collateral reading in connection with the chapters on Greece is Robinson's, *The Days of Alkibiades:* Longmans. The following chapters are suggested for reading in studying this chapter of the text: Delphi, Chapter IV; Olympian games, Chapter XI; Sparta, Chapter XIX.

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Bryant, *Translation of the Odyssey*, Books VI, VII.

Botsford, *A History of the Ancient World*, pp. 81–182.
Andrews, *Alexander the Great*, Persia, pp. 187–207.
Shepherd, *Historical Atlas:* Beginnings of Historic Greece, p. 8; Refer-
    ence maps of Ancient Greece, pp. 10, 11, 14, 15; Greek Colonies,
    p. 12; Persian Wars, pp. 13, 16.

CHAPTER III

THE ATHENIAN AND MACEDONIAN EMPIRES

21. Origin of Athenian Empire. — The Spartans were jealous The Delian League of the growing power of Athens and showed actual hostility to her.[1] Aristides proposed in 466 B.C.[2] a confederacy of the states friendly to Athens. Its object should be to free the Egean and its coasts from Persian rule and, at the same time, balance the land league which Sparta had built up in the Peloponnesus. Athens acted as president of this league, somewhat as the kingdom of Prussia rules the German empire through its king, who is also emperor. The treasury was at first kept on the island of Delos, hence the name Delian League. Each member of the league agreed to furnish a certain number of ships and sufficient money annually to carry on its wars.

During the following ten years the league won many victories, Growth of the League until nearly all the islands of the Egean Sea and the most important cities of Thrace and Ionia were freed from Persia. With the disappearance of Persian power the Ionians were less anxious to have a large fleet; hence, instead of contributing ships, they paid equivalent sums of money into the common treasury. This money was intended as insurance against future attacks, but Athens used it to build new ships, gradually replacing a fleet of allies with her own vessels, until the fleet was entirely Athe-

[1] Sparta attempted to prevent Athens from rebuilding her fortifications which had been destroyed by the Persians. Themistocles deceived the Spartans and misrepresented what Athens was trying to do. He went to Sparta and kept the Spartan leaders occupied with daily conferences while the Athenians completed the fortifications of the city. They were forced to use the ruined walls of temples and public buildings for quarries.

[2] Aristides was at this time in command of the allied Greek fleet which was engaged in freeing the Greek cities of Ionia from Persian rule.

nian built and manned.   Now Athens was in a position to act
the tyrant over the rest of the league.   When Naxos refused to
pay its assessment on the ground that it was no longer needed,
the Athenian fleet compelled payment.   Rebellious cities were
treated as conquered provinces by Athens.   She took away their
citizenship and levied excessive tribute.   In addition to these
acts of tyranny Athens no longer called together the congress
of the league and also removed the treasury of the allies from
Delos to Athens, where its funds were used for beautifying and
strengthening the city.   The Delian League had been con-
verted into an Athenian empire.

Character of Pericles   **22. Periclean Athens.** — After the death of Aristides new
leaders came to the front, among them Pericles, the greatest
statesman of Athens.   An aristocrat by birth, he fought for the
common people, as did Julius Caesar at Rome.   He was a cold,
haughty, reserved man of fine physique and noble face, but he
possessed the power of winning the worship of his adherents.

His Influence He held no important public office except that of general, yet
he was practically emperor of the Athenian empire for over a
score of years.   He had great influence over the officers of
government.   If he lived to-day he would be a political leader

His Aim of national strength.   His aim was to make Athens the most
prominent politically. the most popular and best governed, the
most artistic and the most beautiful of all the cities of Greece.

His Policy After he became the leader of his party he attempted to build
up a land empire for Athens, and within ten years had added
most of central Greece, Thessaly, and Eubea to the Athenean
control.   He completed the fortification of Athens by building
long walls from the city to and enclosing the Pireus, the port of
Athens.   This effectually prevented Sparta from besieging the
city on all sides with a land force and cutting off her supplies.
He gave aid to Egypt in her war for independence from Persia.
Just at this time calamity after calamity overtook the Athenian
empire.   The great Athenian fleet and army in Egypt was
overwhelmed, Eubea and Beotia revolted, and Sparta invaded

Attica.   Pericles was glad to be able to make peace with the Peloponnesians, which is known as the Thirty Years' Truce. (It lasted only fifteen years.)

Although Athens had lost some of her prestige abroad, she was nevertheless at the height of her power at home.   This period is called her golden age.   Athens had become a democracy, of which the following are the principal features: (1) The council and officers who represented the nobles had no real share in the government.   (2) The elective office of general had increased in importance until it resembled that of our president. He had the power to propose laws to the assembly and, after the laws had been made, he had the right to see to their execution. (3) The assembly, now composed of all free-born Athenians who cared to attend, had the power not only to make all important laws, but together with the general also the right to supervise their execution.   (4) The courts became truly representative of the people and acted with the assembly on all matters. *Athenian Democracy*

The dicasteries, or popular courts, were chosen annually by lot.   Each court was made up of five hundred jurors and had jurisdiction over disputes between members of the league, charges brought against public officials, and civil suits.   After the evidence had been presented by the popular orators on each side, the majority vote of the five hundred dicasts or jurors would be the final judgment.   With such a large number of men constantly in the civil service, and with the precedent established of only one term in office, it will be readily seen that public life was required of nearly every free-born Athenian. The consequence was that the Athenians developed the sense of democracy to a higher degree than other peoples of ancient times.

Mistress of a great maritime empire as is Great Britain in our day, Athens became the greatest commercial center of the fourth century before Christ.   In the words of Pericles, " The fruits of the whole earth flow in upon us; so that we enjoy the *Commerce and Industry*

goods of other countries as freely as of our own." As Athens was a manufacturing city, she compelled, under severe penalties for disobedience, all ships which came into her port of Pireus to bring in supplies of food. In exchange she exported her manufactures. But food was only one of the many imports. For the Athenians were luxury loving, and eagerly purchased the finer grades of cloth, the spices and perfumes, and the papyri,

THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS — RESTORED

This fortified hill, contained some of the most splendid productions of Greek art. The Parthenon is seen at the top of the restoration.

or rolls of paper, which were not produced at home. The money changer, or banker, was a necessity in this age when there was no universal standard money, such as the pound sterling of our own time. These bankers charged a commission for this service, and thus amassed fortunes which they loaned out in trading operations at what would seem to us enormously high rates of interest.

Classes of Society The population of Athens during the age of Pericles was probably 250,000. About 35,000 were accorded full citizen-

ship.[1]   There were at least 10,000 foreigners, called metics, residing and engaging in business in Athens at this time.   These were sometimes admitted to citizenship by a secret ballot of the assembly in return for great public service.

Every family in Athens had at least one slave, and there were probaby over 150,000 slaves at work in the shops,

Slavery

THE ACROPOLIS TO-DAY

The art of the Ancients, neglected and in ruins.

mines, or on the country estates of the Athenians in Attica. The employment of slaves in the trades was universally recognized as legitimate, honorable, and profitable.   The Athenian usually treated his slaves with consideration and kindness, the law prohibiting cruelty except when necessary to compel a slave to confess a crime.   The slaves felt the same loyalty

[1] Full citizenship was given only to one whose father's and mother's families were each of citizen stock.   Serious crimes against the state, such as bribery, embezzlement of public money, perjury, or cruelty to parents, were punishable by loss of citizenship.

to their masters as that shown by many Southern negroes before the Civil War; as a result no slave rebellion took place until centuries after the time we are studying.   Although Athens was the leader of the ancient world in free thought, she failed to reach a very high point in ideas of universal brotherhood because she fostered the institution of slavery, adopted a narrow policy toward foreigners, and excluded women from all political rights.

Architecture and Sculpture
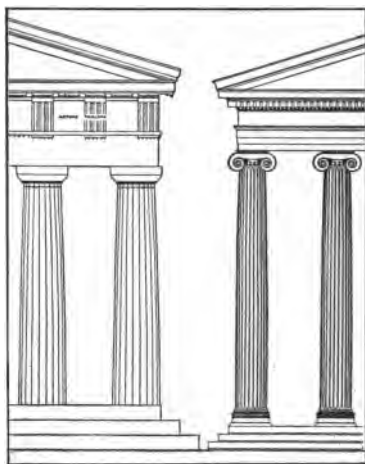
A   ,   B

A. DORIC COLUMNS
B. IONIC COLUMNS

23. Artistic and Intellectual Supremacy of Athens. — Great as Athens was in political growth, she was far greater as the producer of the greatest artistic and intellectual works of antiquity and perhaps of all time. Phidias created in the Parthenon a type of perfect architectural design.   This can never be duplicated.   He built on a slight curve all those lines which our architects must now make absolutely square

Reasons for Greek Artistic Supremacy

and straight.   As curved lines are more beautiful than straight lines, so his temple will always be the most beautiful building in the world.   His pupil, Praxiteles, his superior in sculpture though not in architecture, has given the world the beautiful statue of Hermes.   Greek statues are masterpieces not because they accurately reproduce the lines of the human body, but because viewed from no matter what side, the proportion of the body seems perfectly foreshortened to the eye.   This art of proportion is what distinguishes their work from even the most beautiful of modern works.

At no other period of the world's history were there so many artists of first rank, great writers and deep thinkers within the walls of a single city. The writing of this period was chiefly of two kinds, dramatic poetry and history. The Greeks attached great importance to the drama because they regarded it in the nature of a religious service in honor of the gods. The serious drama, which they called tragedy, grew out of the old choral ode, a hymn sung by a group of worshippers. One actor or singer carried out the main story while the worshippers joined in the chorus. This was the germ of Greek tragedy and more closely resembled grand opera than drama, for the lines of the acts were declaimed or, sung, and the chorus was accompanied with the music of flutes. Aeschylus, a contemporary of Aristides, added a second actor and made the two soloists do the principal work of the drama, leaving to the chorus the task of emphasizing their feelings. He had been a spectator of the battles of the Persian War and his patriotism made him choose lofty themes connected with the history or religion of his country. His masterpiece is " Prometheus Bound," the story of a human benefactor, who was chained to a rock and tortured by an eagle because of his kindness to man. In his agony Prometheus utters great truths concerning the nature of life and death.

(margin notes: Greek Literature, The Drama, Aeschylus)

The Athenians held contests at which contestants for dramatic fame presented their work. Aeschylus was defeated in one of these contests by a young man of twenty-eight named Sophocles. The new dramatist added a third actor to the principals and made the chorus still less prominent. He wrote over a hundred tragedies, of which seven only have been preserved. Among these is " Electra," the story of how Electra avenges the death of her father, Agamemnon, who was murdered after his return from the Trojan War.

(margin note: Sophocles)

Euripides, the third great tragedian, was also sombre in tone, and while his dramas are more polished than those of his predecessors, it is with relief that we turn to the sole humorist

(margin note: Euripides)

among the early great dramatists.   Aristophanes was the first
great writer of comic drama.   From his satirical stories of every-
day life in Athens during the period immediately following the
death of Pericles, we get good pictures of the important men
of the day.   In his " Clouds " he ridicules the work of certain
Athenian teachers, among them Socrates.   (See page 63.)

The Greek   These dramas were presented in the great Dionysian theater,
Theatre   an edifice built on the southeastern slope of the Acropolis.   At

THE RESTORED PARTHENON
From a model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

early dawn on the day of the dramatic festival, great crowds
took their places on the rude benches, like modern " bleachers,"
which were arranged in semicircular rows on the hill-side.
Here again is demonstrated the democracy of Athens, for rich
and poor, government officials in their robes of office, foreign
ambassadors, religious dignitaries, vied with the tattered fisher-
man or humble artisan in their interest.   A small admission
fee was collected from those who attended, the city paying for
those who were too poor to purchase admittance.   At the foot
of the semicircle of seats was a broad, circular space called the

orchestra, which was used by the chorus for its symbolic dances. Behind the orchestra was the space on which the principal actors appeared. They wore fantastic masks, constructed so as to reinforce the voice and throw it to the topmost row of

AN INTERIOR VIEW OF THE RESTORED PARTHENON

benches. Each part in the drama had its particular mask, so the audience was able to determine as soon as the actor appeared what sort of a character he represented. To increase their height and thus make them appear more than mortal men, the actors wore a special kind of shoe. One drama after another was produced until evening fell, and then the judges decided

which was the best and awarded the ivy wreath to the victori-
ous dramatist.   The drama inculcated religious and patriotic
teachings, and hence served in the cause of public education.

History   The historical writing of this period and of the one imme-
diately before and after was mainly the chronicle of war.
The noteworthy exception to the chroniclèrs of wars was
Herodotus, who is called " The Father of History."   Perhaps
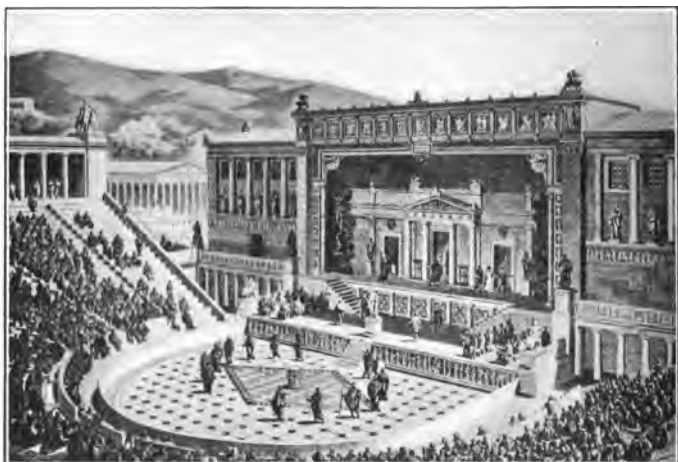
RESTORATION OF THE THEATER OF DIONYSUS

in your collateral reading you have already read extracts taken
from his works. If so, you have noticed that he was a great
traveler and knew from visiting them the scenes and customs
of the oriental countries, and of Italy and Sicily as well. Al-
though he repeats many bits of folk-lore as if they were sober
history, yet the accuracy of most of his statements has been
well established.

Thucydides, an Athenian who lived during and wrote of the
Peloponnesian War, made every effort to verify his statements,
and may be regarded as the first scientific historian. Xenophon,

a pupil of Socrates, continued the history of Athens from the Peloponnesian War to the time of the Theban Supremacy. He also accompanied a war expedition into Persia, and gives us in his account of it, "The Anabasis," a story which is used as the first text-book in the study of the Greek language, because of the simplicity and interest of its style and contents.

RUINS OF THE THEATER OF DIONYSUS
(As it is to-day.)

24. Athenian Education and Educators. — The Greeks included in education physical, mental, and moral training. The Athenian boy studied three subjects: gymnastics, music, and grammar. As these terms mean so much more than they do at present, they must be carefully explained. Physical training was practised in the palestra, or wrestling grounds, under the supervision of a director who taught the boys wrestling, boxing, running, the broad jump, and casting the discus and spear. Track athletics was the popular sport among the Athenians. At the national religious games the boys of Athens frequently carried off the crown of victory

A Sound Mind in a Sound Body

from older men.   All citizens' sons were also trained in the use of weapons.

Music included learning to sing to the accompaniment of the lyre or small harp and to play on the lyre and the flute, a clarinet with two pipes.   The student was taught the biography of the poet who wrote the song and the motives involved in writing the poem; hence he also received considerable literary training.

Grammar was studied at regular schools and consisted of reading and writing.   The pupils wrote with a sharp-pointed iron stylus, or pencil, on wooden tablets covered with wax, usually copying a model set by the instructor.   Others wrote with a reed pen on a rough paper made from the Egyptian papyrus plant.[1]   The text-books of these schools were the " Iliad " and " Odyssey," which were committed to memory in whole or in part.

Mathematics was not studied by the average Athenian. For counting they required an abacus or counting board.[2] The Greek boy had no training in science and a very meagre study of history, and therefore was probably extremely happy in his games of ball, marbles, jackstones, or kite-flying.   The training of Athenian girls was along domestic lines.   They learned to read and write, but, aside from these studies, they were taught only sewing, weaving, and embroidery.

The Sophists   Two years after the death of Pericles there came to Athens from Sicily a gifted orator, named Gorgias, whose eloquent speeches frequently brought the Athenians together into the market-place.   For not all the business of the market-place was buying and selling.   It served as a general gathering place, where the Athenians met their friends, made business or social appointments, and discussed philosophy, politics or religion.

[1] They called this a book (biblos); hence the word "Bible," meaning The Book.

[2] The abacus may be seen in use in Chinese laundries, or in primary school work.

" For all the Athenians and strangers which were there spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or hear some new thing." [1]   The science of public speaking (rhetoric) was thereafter a favorite study at Athens, and the teachers of oratory were called Sophists. The fault of sophistry was that it tended to exalt the words used above the thought thereby expressed and to make of the intellectual grandeur of Athens a showy but shallow " smartness."

Aristophanes ridiculed Socrates as one of these Sophists. In reality he was far greater than they. A poor sculptor by profession, he preferred to spend most of his time loitering in the marketplace in order to get into arguments with the passers-by. He was short and poorly clad, barefooted and homely, but he was able to refute the opinions of his opponents

Socrates

BUST OF SOCRATES

by skillful arguments. Socrates first apparently accepted his adversary's opinion, then by skillful argument he would lead him to contradict himself and thus expose him to the laughter of the bystanders. This is called the Socratic method of teaching. His motto was " Know thyself." He had many enemies, who finally caused him to be thrown into prison on two charges: that of treason and of impiety. After an unfair trial, in which he argued that he deserved a reward, not punishment, he was condemned to die by drinking poison.

[1] Acts vxii, 21.

Plato

His greatest pupil was the philosopher Plato, who taught that the soul is immortal and that man's mind is superior to his body. Yet few of the Greeks had any conception of a future life except as a shadowy continuation of this present existence.

Streets and Houses

25. Life in Athens in the Days of Pericles. — The outward appearance of the streets and houses of Athens was very different from that of a modern town. The streets were merely crooked, unpaved, and dirty lanes scarcely fifteen feet wide. Few of them were even named. The houses were built in continuous blocks, one story high, a few were two stories high. There were no numbers and no windows on the ground floor. The two-storied houses had a few very narrow windows on the second floor. The houses were generally rectangular in shape and consisted of a greater or lesser number of rooms built around one or two open courts, the arrangement and number of rooms depending upon the wealth and prominence of the house-holder. The rooms surrounding the court were for the most part merely cells, with no ventilation except through the door. But one or two rooms are worthy of special notice. In the rear of the main court was located the family dining hall. Here were held the principal dinners given by the family, and here also was located the family altar. Back of this room were the room or rooms reserved especially for the women of the family. None but members of the immediate family could go into these apartments. The walls were of sun-dried brick. The fundamental idea in house furnishing was simplicity. Hence we find only the scantiest amount of furniture, consisting of beds, chairs, stools, couches, and great chests, which were used in place of the closets and bureaus to which we are accustomed. Portable tables, bronze lamps, a few rugs used chiefly as wall draperies or couch covers, and the simplest vessels of bronze or pottery completed the household possessions. The houses had no plumbing, furnaces, toilet conveniences, or most of the accessories which we to-day consider necessities.

Because of the warm climate the Athenian had little trouble **Clothing**
with his clothing. It consisted chiefly of an oblong piece of
cloth thrown around the body and fastened in place with pins.
There were slight differences between the costume of the man
and that of the woman. Both wore an outer and an inner
oblong wrap of wool, but the man only was privileged to ap-
pear in public without his outer cloak. The woman's cos-
tume was more elaborately adorned with tassels, fringes, and

A GREEK BANQUET HALL

embroideries. Children wore garments similar to those of
their elders, but, in summer, the younger boys rarely wore
any clothing at all. All wore sandals, leather soles strapped to
the ankles by thongs.

The average Athenian cared little for elaborate meals. He **Food**
was content to breakfast on a few mouthfuls of bread dipped
in wine. At noon he lunched on one or two hot dishes. His
dinner was his only real meal. As he was very hospitably
inclined, he usually entertained one or more friends. The first
course consisted of fish, such vegetables as turnips, radishes,
peas, asparagus, and onions, according to the season, and an
abundance of most of the fruits and nuts with which we are

familiar.   The second course consisted of more fruits and con-
fections made with honey, and wine.   But the poorer Athenian
had to content himself with the three staple articles of diet,
bread, olive oil used as we use butter, and wine.   The Athenian
ate little meat, although at great banquets beef, pork, and all
kinds of poultry were served.   The crowning feature of these
banquets was the symposium or drinking bout.   This was more
than a mere vulgar drinking party, however, as it was not so
much the wine consumed as the conversation, or entertainment
which accompanied it, which was valued.

**26. The Peloponnesian War and the Decline of the Greek
City-states.** — The truce made by Pericles with the Pelopon-
nesian League had lasted only fifteen years when the great war
between the rival leagues began again in earnest.   The reasons
for hostility were as follows: the Athenian League was com-
posed chiefly of democratic and commercial cities; the Spartan
of aristocratic and landholding states.   Some of the states,
of the latter league, such as Corinth, wished to gain some of
Athens's commercial supremacy.   The causes then were two-
fold: the difference between the character of the two leagues
and strife for commercial leadership.   Athens had the com-
mand of the sea, but her army was inadequate for a long cam-
paign on land.   Sparta had the better army, but was unable
to keep this army long in the field because she lacked a navy
to support its operations and to furnish it with supplies.   Pericles
clearly recognized these conditions and advocated a policy of
delay.   The Athenians retired within their fortifications and re-
lied upon their fleet to feed them by bringing in grain from the
far-away shores of the Black Sea.   In the meantime the Spartan
army ravaged the fields of Attica, but did no serious damage
to Athens.   The Athenian war vessels retaliated on the shores
of Laconia.

The Combatants

This plan proved successful until the unwonted crowding
of the city and the lack of proper sanitary precautions brought
pestilence upon Athens, from which more than a fourth of the

End of
Athenian
Supremacy

GREECE
IN THE
PELOPONNESIAN WAR

Athens and her Allies
Sparta and her Allies

population of Athens died, among them their great leader and counsellor.[1] His successors, men of unquestioned heroism, but lacking his tact and generalship, led Athens from defeat to defeat.[2] At last Persian gold aided the Spartans to destroy the power of the most enlightened of the Greek cities. Sparta destroyed the fortifications of Athens and declared Hellas free.

The destruction of Athenian power left Sparta in the most prominent position in Greece. She ruled the members of the former Athenian League with a rod of iron, placing over each a committee of ten men, called decarchy, which was supported by a military garrison. Her supremacy reacted disastrously upon Sparta, for the city of Thebes, under the leadership of a brilliant statesman-general, Epaminondas, humbled her armies in the field and crushed her political hopes. This general was successful because he improved upon the military tactics of his day. The Spartans had invented the phalanx, a fighting unit made up of compact bodies of men who marched and fought as one. Epaminondas improved upon this plan by making his line of battle deeper at

<div style="float:right">Decline of the Greek City-states</div>

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[1] An Athenian historian has written the following funeral oration, which he puts into the mouth of Pericles. "To sum up: I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, I would have you day by day fix your eyes upon the greatness of Athens, until you become filled with the love of her; and when you are impressed by the spectacle of her glory, reflect that this empire has been acquired by men who knew their duty and had their courage to do it and who in the hour of conflict had the fear of dishonor always present in them.

"For the whole earth is a sepulchre of famous men; not only are they commemorated by columns and inscriptions in their own country, but in foreign lands there dwells an unwritten memorial of them, graven not on stone, but in the hearts of men. Make them your examples, and esteeming courage to be freedom and freedom to be happiness, do not weigh too nicely the perils of war." This is surely the only funeral oration in any language worthy to be classed with the Gettysburg Address.

[2] The culminating tragedy was an ill-advised expedition against Syracuse, a Sicilian state allied to the Peloponnesian League. Here a fleet of over two hundred ships and an army of forty thousand men, the picked soldiers of Athens, were destroyed. After this defeat Athens struggled along for nine years before she was forced to surrender.

one particular point and by concentrating his attack upon the enemy at that point. The other detachments of his army fell upon the flanks of the enemy struggling with his deep phalanx and put them to rout. Epaminondas was killed in battle after ten years of success, and no Greek was able to carry on his work of leadership.

The city-states had failed. Each of the leading states had been given an opportunity to weld all Hellas together under its leadership, but each in turn failed, partly because of the unfavorable geographical conditions, such as the mountainous character of the land, but chiefly because its motives were selfish. Each strove for wealth and power at the expense of the other states. It was left for an outsider to unite the Greek world into a great empire.

The Rise of Macedon

27. Macedon and Alexander the Great. — Before the time of the Theban supremacy the people of Macedon were " without fixed habitations, clad in animal skins, pasturing sheep among the mountains." They were somewhat different from the other Greeks in racial characteristics. Philip II, who had spent his boyhood at Thebes, proved a great ruler and conqueror. He introduced the Theban phalanx and improved upon it, making his soldiers perform military manœuvres similar to those of modern battalions. While training his army he deceived the Greek cities as to his real motive. He finally threw his army across the border and speedily crushed all resistance. The Greek states met at Corinth and acknowledged Philip as the ruler or leader of all Hellas. He then planned to invade Persia, but died at the moment of entering upon the expedition, leaving his well-trained army, his treasury, and the prestige of his name to his youthful son, Alexander.

The Life of Alexander the Great

Alexander was twenty years old when his father died, and a few malcontents thought they could take advantage of of his youth. But in less than two years he had so thoroughly chastised these rebels that he felt secure in taking up the task

EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT—AT ITS WIDEST EXTENT
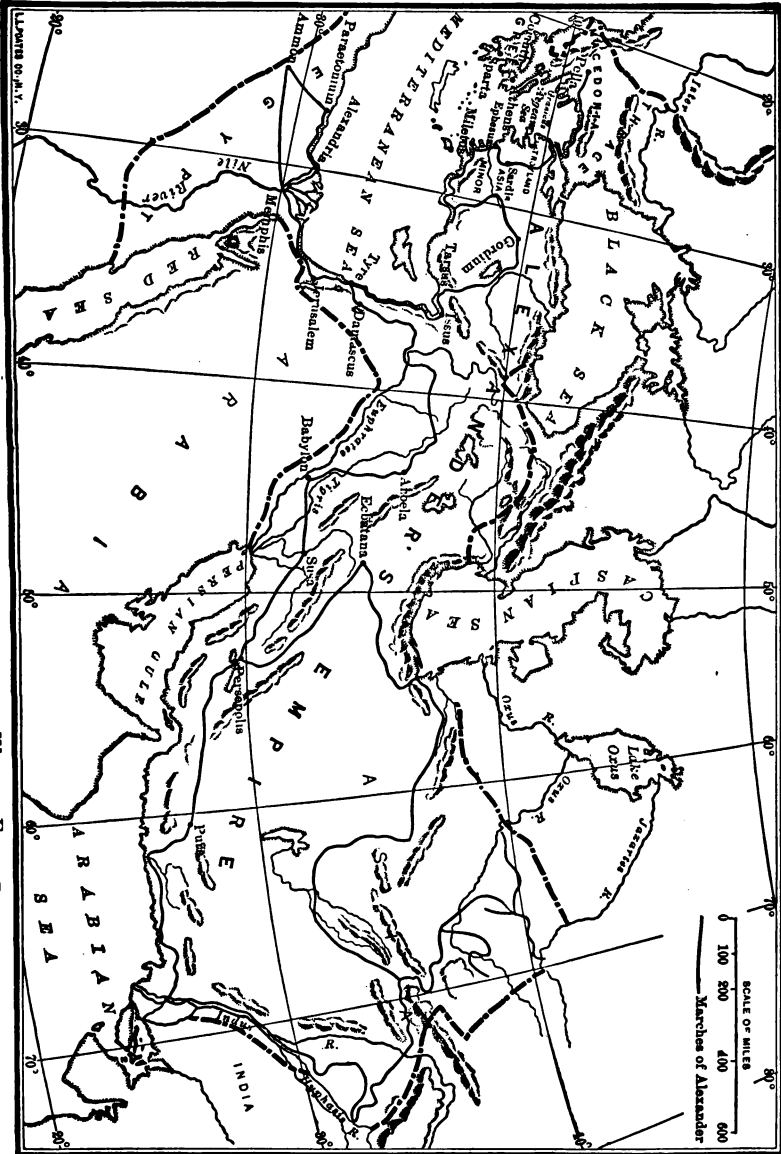
his father had planned. Entering Asia Minor (334 B.C.) with a small but fully equipped army, he fought three world-famous battles with the Persian forces at Granicus, Issus, and Arbela. After capturing the ancient city of Tyre, he visited Egypt and founded at the mouth of the Nile the famous city named after himself, Alexandria, which became one of the chief intellectual cities of the world. Within five years he was master of the East as far as the Indus, had deposed the king of Persia, and had welded the Hellenic and Persian world together into one vast empire, the greatest then known to history. He returned to Babylon, where he died suddenly of a fever brought on by excesses in eating and drinking, or, as some believe, from poison.

His Character and Place in History   The importance of his career and conquests is incalculable. He was a man of great breadth of mind, fond of science and history. He was trained by the great philosopher Aristotle, the pupil of Plato. His passions were not always under the best control. He inherited from his mother a violent temper that caused him to commit many acts of folly and violence; and, while under the influence of wine, he murdered his friend Clitus. His generalship was of the highest order. Only once did he suffer a defeat, and that was at the hands of the Hindoo princes, when, with a tired and discontented army, he tried to conquer the lands beyond the Indus. His statesmanship is shown by his policy of uniting the Greeks and Persians in marriage, and he set an example by marrying the daughter of the deposed Persian ruler. His love of learning is shown in his regard for his tutor, Aristotle, the most famous scientist of ancient times. Alexander was the most attractive in person of all the world's great conquerors. Of magnificent proportions, with a handsome face he is an ideal of the man of force.

The chief importance of Alexander's career lies in the spread of the Greek civilization over the entire eastern Mediterranean region. The entire civilized world at that time became Greek in language, learning, and customs, all except the struggling

republic of the West, Rome. In building cities to be the centers
of Greek thought throughout his dominions, he greatly broadened
the minds of the people of the East. Greece gained the wealth
of plundered temples and cities, but she lost the thousands of
strong men who made up that army. Those who remained at
home were the physically unfit. The consequence was that the
Greek race declined physically, while the new-found wealth
sapped its moral vigor.

28. The Hellenic World after the Death of Alexander. — Divisions of
Alexander's infant son was unable to hold his empire, and the Empire
it was accordingly divided up between four of his generals,[1]
among whom the most important was Ptolemy, who chose
for his share the rich, ancient land of Egypt, adding later by
conquest the region of Syria. He made his capital at Alexan-
dria, which was the royal seat of his descendants until nearly
the beginning of the Christian era. Some of the Ptolemies
were patrons of learning and of public works, but the greater
number were of weak or depraved character.

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[1] The wars between Alexander's generals are called the wars of suc-
cession. At their close there grew up three great states: Egypt, Syria,
and Macedonia. Hellas fell a prey to one and then to another of
these powers. Curiously it was during this period of political decline
in general that the most successful unions of city-states were made in
Hellas. Achea had not played an important part in earlier Greek his-
tory, although the name Achean will be remembered as applied by Homer
to the conquerors of the Myceneans. The cities of Achea during the
third century B.C., formed a league which later took in all the city-states
of the Peloponnesus except Sparta and Elis. Its constitution resembles
that of the American confederation from 1783 to 1788, and also, but
less obviously, our federal constitution. Twice annually a congress of as
many representatives of the cities of the league as cared to attend was
held at which important officers were elected. These were a general, a
cabinet of ten men, and a senate. Taxation was made by the senate at
the advice of the cabinet. Each state had only one vote in congress with-
out regard to the number of representatives present. Sparta also built
up a league, and the struggle between the rival leagues again weakened
Greece so that she fell into the hands of Macedon a second time. Soon
after this Rome conquered the East and both leagues were merged with the
Roman empire.

Aristotle

The century of the spread of Hellenic ideas saw a great advance in philosophical knowledge. Aristotle wrote weighty scientific works and established a school at Athens where many

PTOLEMY CROWNED BY UPPER AND LOWER EGYPT. EDFOU

sciences were taught. His travels enabled him to gain geographical knowledge and to collect specimens of plants and animals for classification. His thought was so profound that, in the middle ages, his works were reverenced by learned men with a respect almost equal to that given the Bible.

During the later Greek period we also find two widely dif- fering systems of ethics, the science of conduct. The Athenian Epicurus preached that happiness is to be sought above all else, but by happiness he meant the knowledge that one has acted honorably in all the relations. The Epicurean school of thinkers, however, departed from their founder's teachings in that they regarded any sort of happiness as right. To such men no higher ideal would appeal than the famous saying at-
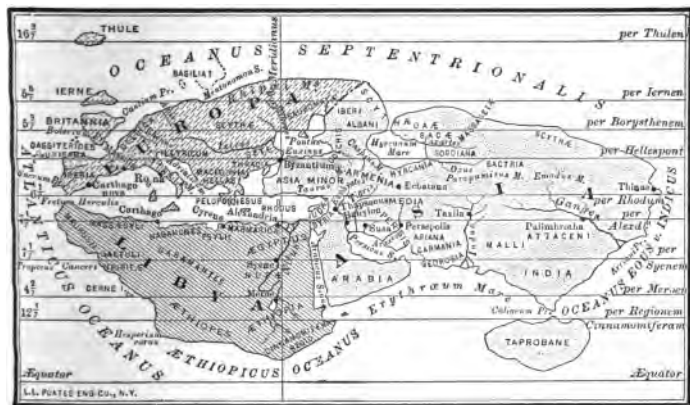
THE WORLD AS KNOWN TO THE SCIENTISTS AT ALEXANDRIA

tributed to the Epicureans, " Eat, drink, and be merry for to-morrow we die."

Entirely opposed to such teachings were those of Zeno, called the Stoic because he taught in the Stoa (porch) at Athens. Zeno said that man's chief ideal should be virtue, by which he meant acting according to one's reason. Be good for the sake of being good; not merely be good to be happy, as Epicurus had taught. Unfortunately Stoicism came to mean something as far different from its founder's teachings as did Epicureanism. In contrast to the luxurious living of the Epicureans, the Stoics denied themselves many pleasures, because they wished to attain goodness. They even went so

far as to say that happiness is a sin, and prided themselves on their indifference to pleasure and pain. Hence we speak of a man who quietly endures pain as a stoic.

Beginnings of the University The greatest thinkers of the time lived and worked either at Athens or Alexandria. The germ of the modern university developed at Athens in the so-called Museum. This originated as a religious society for the worship of the muses, goddesses of learning and the fine arts, and it became a school for the promotion of useful knowledge. Plato taught and Aristotle studied here, but it was at the Academy at Athens, a different sort of a school, that the latter taught science. Alexandria possessed an institution along similar lines, established by one of the Ptolemies, endowed with an enormous library of five hundred thousand manuscript books. With such a reference library to draw upon, it is not wonderful that Alexandria became the center of scientific education.

29. Summary of the Splendor and Decay of Hellas. — From the time of the Persian Wars Athens was the home of great generals, matchless sculptors, brilliant thinkers, and wonderful writers who transformed Athens from a struggling village with no fortifications, little political freedom, and as little commercial importance, into the most important city of the eastern Mediterranean. The impress of the work of these men remains on present civilization, as practically all the foundation for our philosophical ideas and scientific and literary theory was laid by them. Although she exerted this influence intellectually, politically she had little influence. It is true that she developed democratic ideals, but these perished with her political power. The unification of Hellas and the Orient was accomplished by a semi-Greek race under the leadership of Alexander, one of the world's greatest generals. His work was to spread the Greek civilization over the entire East, to be adopted and modified by Roman and German in turn until our present civilization was produced. Greece was the educator, Rome the organizer, the German race the liberator of Europe.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR
FURTHER STUDY

Distinguish between a federacy and a confederacy. Look up the differences between the Delian and Peloponnesian leagues. Show on an outline map the states belonging or allied to each. Compare the government of Athens with that of our country in the following particulars, using outline form: names and duties of the executive; name and principal powers of the legislative branch; composition and jurisdiction of the jury. Read the story of Aspasia, the friend of Pericles, and compare the freedom of Athenian women with American. Define metope, pediment, frieze, cornice, architrave, triglyph, entablature. Read the story of Alcibiades. Read Chapter XXI in Botsford and give a summary of the wars between the western Greeks and the Carthaginians. Read how Demosthenes the great Athenian orator attempted to warn Athens against Philip of Macedon. Why did the empire of Alexander break up? Compare the Achean and Delian leagues in respect to organization, object, and strength. Describe an Athenian house. Describe the daily life of the Athenian.

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CHAPTER IV

THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME

30. Early Italy and its Inhabitants. — The peninsula of Italy projects in a southerly direction from the continent of Europe into the Mediterranean and commands the center of that great highway of commerce. In area Italy is about equal to California. Its climate, for the most part, is mild in winter and warm and dry in summer. Both climate and soil are extremely favorable to agriculture, and olive groves and vineyards are everywhere. The early Romans thought of Italy as that portion of the pennsula south of the tiny Rubicon River. North of that lay the rich Po river valley, called Cisalpine Gaul (Gaul on this side of the Alps Mountains.) The backbone of the peninsula was the rugged range of the Apennines. The harbors were all on the west coast, away from Greece and her refining influences. *Historical Geography of Italy*

Just when or how Italy was peopled is at best a matter of conjecture; perhaps it occured at about the same time that the various tribes entered Greece. The same great movement of folk that brought the Myceneans into Greece carried along further a branch of the same race to settle north of the Tiber along the western shore, where they founded a kingdom known as Etruria.[1] These Etruscans, or Tuscans as they were called by their neighbors, developed an important civilization which had great influence on the early develop- *Early Inhabitants of Italy* *The Etruscans*

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[1] Italy had been peopled long before the Myceneans first came. In early Roman times fragments of prehistoric races, such as the Ligurians, existed in the northwest, and the Venetians in the northeast. These races finally disappeared, exterminated by the newcomers or assimilated with them in marriage.

EARLY ITALY

ment of Rome.   Tradition relates that Etruscan kings ruled
over Rome.

About the time that the Acheans overthrew the Mycenean   The Italians
Greeks, the kinsmen of the former, driving their flocks before
them, found their way through the winding passes of the Alps
and across the Po valley into the mountains of Italy.   These

ETRUSCAN WAR CHARIOT

tribes soon won control over all Italy south of the Rubicon
River and east of the Tiber, except the lower part of the pen-
insula, which had been colonized by the Greeks.   The Italians
were an agricultural and pastoral people and contributed the
sturdiness of character so noticeable in the Roman.

The Greek cities established colonies in lower Italy and Sicily,   The Greeks
notably at Syracuse, Rhegium, and at Messina.   Of equal
importance were Tarentum, on the gulf of the same name, and

Naples, an important commercial city on the southwestern coast on a beautiful bay overshadowed by Mount Vesuvius, the dreaded volcano of Italy. Because of the supremacy of the Greeks in lower Italy and in Sicily, the name Greater Greece was applied to all that region. The Greeks soon entered into commercial relations with their northern neighbors and became the teachers of the Italian tribes.
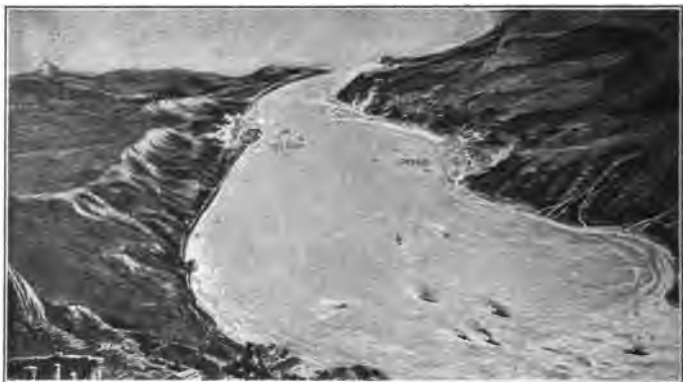
STRAITS OF MESSINA

This narrow strait was feared by the ancients who believed that two monsters dwelt there and destroyed all passing ships and devoured their crews.

Sicily lies at the left of the picture; Italy at the right. The nearness of Sicily to Italy was an important factor in moulding Roman history.

The Romans borrowed with slight modifications their alphabet, and many Greek words for things hitherto unfamiliar to them. They also adopted the Greek measures of volume and length. Finally they identified several of the Greek divinities with their own nature gods.

About the time that Xenophon made his famous Persian march, a barbarous tribe known as the Gauls or Celts invaded the valley of the Po and made a settlement there. For a time they threatened to conquer all Italy; their war-bands ravaged

the fields of the Italians and captured and sacked the city of
Rome.   Driven back at last into the Po valley, they settled
there and gave their name to the region.   They did little for
the culture of Italy except to draw the Italian tribes together
to act against a common danger, and so perhaps aided Rome in
her later work.

31. The Legends of Old Rome. — The city of Rome grew
from a settlement upon one of seven hills on the western coast
near the mouth of the Tiber River.   Its real origin is obscured
in legend, and even the date of its founding is unknown, but
the Romans regarded the legend as so sacred that they dated
time from it.   Like other ancient tribes, the Romans built
upon a hill and near a river, so that they would have both
defence and fresh water if an enemy besieged them.

We know little about the first centuries of Roman history.
In order to account for customs already established, the Romans
invented the names of imaginary heroes and described their
supposed deeds.

The Romans believed that the city of Rome was founded
by Romulus, a great warrior, who, when an infant, had been
left to die on a river bank, but was saved and adopted by a
wolf.   He became king of his people, established the city of
Rome on a hill south of the Tiber, and ruled wisely.   During
his reign the city of Rome spread from its original site on the
Palatine Hill over other neighboring hills, and various Italian
tribes were conquered and incorporated into the Roman people.
This story was invented to explain how the city was founded.
Romulus was probably one of the gods of the Romans of cen-
turies before.   The Romans accounted for their religious cus-
toms as follows: Romulus was succeeded on the throne by a
king named Numa, who was very religious and who drew
up their laws of religion.   Other stories told of the enlargement
of Roman territory; of the subjugation of other Italian cities;
of the origin of the military system of Rome; of the gradual
division of the population into serfs and nobles; of the increas-

ing wealth of the latter; of the alleged tyranny of later kings and their downfall; of the establishment of a republican form of government; and of strife between the nobles or patricians and the serfs or plebeians for power in this new government.

After much repetition the Romans believed these stories and added considerable detail to them, but it should be remembered that all the records of the city were destroyed when the Gauls sacked Rome about 390 B.C. How the Romans could get such faulty ideas about their early history will be better understood if you attempt to imagine the amount of accuracy that there would be in a history written by yourself of the last two hundred years of American history without reference to any book.

It is true that some real historic information may be obtained from an examination of the monuments and other structures that remain in the city, but unfortunately few of these date back earlier than the third century before our era. Most of the early history, then, is made up of traditions handed down from father to son plus fictitious incidents added by persons of vivid imagination.

Summary of
Early History   Among the primitive Romans certain men took the leadership by virtue of their strength and valor, and thus a monarchy was established by common consent. As the society of Rome became more complex, the wealthy exerted more and more political power until they were able to drive out the

About 509
B.C.   kings and to establish an oligarchy, which, veiling itself behind a few democratic features, called itself the Roman republic.

The Roman
Family
the Unit of
Society   32. Primitive Roman Society. — The unit of Roman society was the family. This consisted not only of a man, his wife and children, but included also all of the same blood: cousins, uncles, grandchildren, etc. The governing power lay in the hands of the oldest male, the father of the family. Each family had its own set of gods, its own rules of conduct. For this reason, when a woman married, a religious ceremony

was held to denote her adoption into the family. After the Origin of Religious Ceremony of Marriage
ceremony she was entitled to share in all the privileges ac-
corded to other women in her new family, and she lost all rights
in the family from which she had come.

In the course of time a family had so many branches that Families expand into Clans; Clans into Curias; Curias into Tribes; and Tribes combine to Form the City-state
it became necessary for each branch to be represented at the
councils by certain leading men. Such a family is called a
clan or gens. The clan had its own chief for leader in war
or for high priest in peace, and its council of the elder men.
A number of clans frequently associated themselves for pur-
poses of defence. This union of clans was called the curia.
In the curia the chiefs formed an executive council or senate
and one of their number was chosen to lead in war. A still
more elaborate form of government was the tribe, in which
we find similar elements of government. As in Athens, various
tribes living on the hills now the site of Rome combined
into a city-state, having a king, senate, and an assembly of the
leading men of the curias.[1]

There were two classes of society among the early Romans Classes of Society
— the patricians and plebeians. The former were nobles, and
the latter had no political rights until they won them. The
former were descendants of the original population of Rome,
but the plebeians were sprung from the people conquered by
Rome in her wars, or from those whom the kings brought
into the city.[2] As the patricians became more and more power-

[1] Latin colonists of the tribe of Ramnes or Romans built a village on
the Palatine Hill. An Italian tribe, known as the Sabines, settled on
the Quirinal Hill nearby. One of the many interesting legends of Rome
tells of the seizure of Sabine women for wives by Roman men and of the
resulting union of these tribes. While we do not know how the tribes united,
it is certain that their union and the addition of a third tribe of Etruscan
origin was the beginning of the Roman state. The third tribe was the Lu-
ceres, who settled on the Celian Mount.

[2] Dr. Botsford does not believe that the social classes originated in
the manner described above, but rather that the "plebeians were like the
commons of most other states of ancient or modern times." There is good
authority, however, for the classification given.

ful in government, they were disposed to treat the king and all his dependents with more harshness, and denied all political rights to the plebeians.

Regal Constitution of Rome

ELEMENTS	COMPOSITION AND TERM	POWERS
King	One elected for life by popular vote of patricians	War-chief, high priest, chief judge
Senate	The number of senators at the close of the regal period was one hundred thirty-six. The senate was composed of the clan chiefs, who served for life	An advisory body. In the interval between the reign of one king and the election of his successor, the senate assigned to its members the duties of the king. This interval was known as an interregnum, and the senator temporarily filling the office was called the interrex.
Comitia curiata or assembly of the thirty curias	Composed of all patricians of the curias able to provide themselves with equipment for war	This body met at the call of the king or interrex to approve laws which he proposed, to ratify his acts, or to elect his successor.

Rights of the Two Classes   The rights of the patrician became fixed as follows: to hold public office; to make laws; to hold property securely; to marry the woman of his choice; and, if accused of crime, to demand a public trial in the patrician court. The plebeian had none of the former rights: he could neither hold office nor attend meetings of the assembly or of the senate; he had no standing in the courts of law; he could not own property nor marry out of his class. Newcomers brought in by the patricians and dependent upon them were known as clients. While they had no legal rights, their lot was much happier than that of the plebeians.

33. The Religion of the Early Romans. — The religion of the early Romans was very simple, consisting of the worship of the powers of nature and of the family ancestors. Each household had its family altar on which the father, in his rôle of priest, offered up sacrifices to the family gods and protecting spirits which were known as Lares and Penates. As they came into

RITUAL SCENE, PALATINE WALL PAINTING

contact with the Etruscans, the Romans borrowed from them their belief in signs and omens and established certain offices for those who could interpret the meaning of a flight of birds or of the motions of a dying animal slaughtered for that purpose. Such officers, called augurs or haruspices, became very powerful in matters of government, because, like the Greeks, the Romans made a practice of consulting the wishes of the gods before undertaking any important enterprise.

Influence of
the Greek
Religion

The Greeks, who came up from southern Italy to trade with the Romans, brought with them their beautiful legends and myths, and before long the Romans identified the gods and goddesses of Hellas with their own nature deities. The religion soon became very complex and of great political importance. Before declaring war or making peace, the colleges or societies of augurs were consulted. As these officials were stationed at Rome, the growing city became the religious center of the Italian peninsula.[1] Religious festivals and games were frequently held at different seasons of the year, at which sacrifices were offered up in payment of vows made by citizens who considered that they had successfully sought the favor of the gods.

The Life of
an Early
Roman

The Roman boy was trained at first by his parents and later by his schoolmaster to respect his elders, to obey the laws, and to lead a virtuous life. He learned little from books, but much from example. His education included the practical subjects of how to manage his estate, cultivate his fields, and understand his country's laws. There was no fixed year, as the twenty-first with us, when the Roman became of age. It depended on his mental and physical maturity. Usually about his seventeenth year he served for a short time in the cavalry. After performing his duty to the state in that particular, he returned to his home, married, and became the solid citizen of the next generation. Like the Athenian, the Roman patrician made a business of politics.

Education of
a Roman girl

The girl's education was more limited. As a woman had no right to hold property and as her only duties were those of the mother and housewife, the girl of old Rome learned whatever was decided for her by her father, and later by her husband.

Importance of
Precedent
of the Roman
Religion

To understand Roman history we must know the extent to which the Roman was ruled by precedent. The father was absolute over his family because of precedent. When the

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[1] When pagan Rome became Christian Rome, this religious preëminence of Rome over the other cities of the Roman empire remained as one of the determining causes of the prominence of the Roman bishop. (See p. 151.)

young Roman in his turn became a father and the head of a new family, he found that he had exchanged the tyranny of one father for the tyranny of many fathers, for wherever he went he was subject to the established customs of Rome. If he violated these customs his name might be erased from the roll of the senate by the censors, officers whose duties were to look out for just such offences, or else he might be prosecuted for violation of the law. These customs were largely a result of the teachings of the Roman religion, in which the family and its tradition was the chief object of worship. One good result of this system was that the Roman became the lawmaker for the world. Our legal codes and methods of action are in many cases based directly upon Roman custom and law.

34. The Establishment of the Republic. — Tradition relates that the last kings were Etruscan conquerors, who ruled Rome with a firm hand and introduced many good customs. One of the last kings organized a new assembly in which the more influential of the plebeians had some power. This was called the comitia centuriata, because it was made up of centuries or companies.

These reforms were displeasing to the patricians. They were further incensed at the king's favors to the plebeians, many of whom were doubtless his own countrymen, who had followed him to Rome and had settled there under his protection. To prevent the further breaking-down of old customs, the patricians stirred up revolution and regained control, taking care to divide the powers, formerly exercised by the king, between two men called consuls, who were to act as checks on each other. They were further restrained by annual election. *About 509 B.C.*

In later years the patricians sought to justify their rebellion in the eyes of all classes by painting the characters of the last kings as black as possible. It is quite possible that the Tarquins were no worse than most of their contemporaries, and that the evil deeds attributed to them were wholly imagined by the patricians.

35. Establishment of Roman Supremacy in Italy. — The
newly established republic found it necessary to secure recog-
nition from its former mistress, Etruria, as did our own country
from Great Britain.   For many years Rome was at war with
the neighboring Etruscan cities, but at last they recognized not

ROMAN LEGIONARY SOLDIERS.
Showing armor, weapons, and costume

only her independence, but also her supremacy.   In 390 B.C.
occurred the invasion of the Gauls.   The city of Rome was cap-
tured and only the citadel was saved from the fire in which
perished all the official records of old Rome.

The Gallic wave ebbed as rapidly as it had risen, and rebuilt
Rome forged to the front as the leader of all the Latin cities.
She now proceeded on a definite policy of conquest, success-

fully withstanding revolts of various discontented allies and crushing neighboring mountain tribes. By the end of the third century B.C., she had firmly established her authority in the lands of central Italy, and had organized the governments in these lands to suit herself. Alarmed at Rome's aggressions, Tarentum, the most powerful and wealthy of the Greek cities, declared war against Rome. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, came over to help his countrymen. The Romans were at first troubled at the coming of this ally of their foes, but after they had lost several battles they so weakened his army that he was force to retire from Italy. The Greeks were punished for presuming to war on Rome, and all Italy south of the Rubicon passed under the Roman yoke.[1]

Wars for Conquest

These wars were of immense benefit to Italy. The various peoples were combined under the leadership of a strong nation; the good points of each people were assimilated by the Romans; the plebeians gained equality with the patricians by refusing to fight at critical times unless the patricians granted them certain concessions; Roman culture was brought to many tribes which were barbarian at the beginning of the struggle; Rome was trained in the art of war so that she was able to compete successfully with her strong rival, Carthage.

General Results of these Wars

At the close of these wars Rome found herself with greater territories than before. She took possession of some of the conquered land, and, dividing it up into large farms, used it to pay off the veteran soldiers who had helped win it.[2] A portion of the land was retained by the government and rented to rich contractors, who hoped to make a great profit from it. The

Roman Land Policy

[1] In early Roman history the conquered army had to pass under a low gate formed by sticking two spears into the ground and fastening a third spear across the tops of them. This bore a faint resemblance to a yoke, such as was used for cattle, and signified that the vanquished passed into servitude to the conqueror; hence the phrase "sub jugum," or "under the yoke."

[2] The American government adopted a similar policy after the Revolutionary War, granting tracts of land to its creditors, among them the old soldiers.

latter practice gave rise to frauds, exactly as has a similar prac-
tice in the western part of the United States. Rich men ob-
tained possession of government land by illegal methods and
then claimed to own it. Large estates at this time were com-
mon, and with the decline of small farming slavery with all
its evils increased.

Colonies   In some parts of Italy the Roman government established
towns and promised all the rights of Roman citizenship, except
· that of voting in the assembly,[1] to those who would go out from
Rome to colonize them. Such towns were called Latin colonies,
to distinguish them from a different form of colony which pos-
sessed all the rights of citizenship and which was called a Roman
colony. The Roman idea of a colony differed considerably
from that of the Greeks. (See p. 35.)

Roman   There were other classes of communities besides colonies at
Dependencies this time in Italy. As Rome extended her conquests to include
all of southern Italy, she became the mistress of the Greek cities.
These she made into municipia or prefectures; the former if
they assented to, the latter if they resisted her plans for their
government. The municipia were towns that retained their
local governments, but whose citizens might obtain Roman
citizenship in time if they satisfied certain requirements: such
as serving in the Roman army and paying a share in the expense
of government. The prefectures were less favored. They
were the towns which had caused Rome the most trouble, and
accordingly were not allowed to govern themselves, but were
ruled by military governors, called prefects, who were sent from
Rome to rule over them. As Roman influence extended in the
peninsula, a few of the Italian cities were treated as allies by
Rome and shared in her general prosperity. The unfortunate

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[1] The Roman had nearly the same conception of citizenship as that
expressed in the American Declaration of Independence. He wanted
protection and justice, the right to vote, and the right to gain and hold
property in safety. His ideas of the duties of a citizen were similar to
ours. He must pay taxes for the support of his government and fight
for her if necessary.

country folk of Italy, whose lands were seized by Rome for her soldiers, were treated as subjects. The peoples of Italy at the close of the conquest of that peninsula may be grouped as follows:

(1) Those having complete citi-   Roman citizens and Roman col-
     zenship   onists
(2) Those having partial citizen- Latin colonists, municipia
     ship
(3) Those having no citizenship   Prefectures, allies, subjects

It will be noted that class (3) comprises widely differing groups.

To facilitate the movement of her armies during these wars, Rome began the construction of the famous military roads, great arteries of trade through her entire dominions. (See map between pages 98 and 99.) The method of construction is worthy of study. First, two ditches were dug to mark its width; then the surface dirt was excavated down to a firm earth or rock foundation. Sometimes this foundation was made by driving in piles. Upon the foundation a filler of crushed stone was laid and bound together with cement. On the surface, a pavement of flat blocks of stone was constructed, the cracks between them being filled with cement. These roads were made very straight, bridging rivers, sometimes tunneling hills. Although primarily intended for military purposes, they were open to the public and aided in the development of trade. As commerce increased, money was necessary, so the Romans commenced to coin copper and later silver and gold coins. The moneyed class began to gain political privileges hitherto possessed only by the nobles, and a new aristocracy of wealth resulted. Competition between the merchants of Rome and those of other Mediterranean communities resulted in wars for the control of all the shores of that sea. *Commercial Expansion and its effects*

It must not be supposed that the plebeians were satisfied to remain wholly deprived of political rights. By a series of strikes, at critical periods of these and later wars, they gained many rights. First of all, they gained an official called the *Growth of Democracy*

tribune.   To him any oppressed plebeian might appeal for pro-
tection and for justice against his oppressor.   He was chosen
from the ranks of the common people.   Before the period of
expansion had ended, the plebeian was eligible to almost every
Roman political office.

36. Italy and the Conquest of the Mediterranean. — When
Rome entered upon her conquest of the Mediterranean region,
the important states outside of Italy were Carthage, a colony
of Phenicia, and the three kingdoms into which the dominions
of Alexander had been divided by the wars of succession.   Carth-
age, located on the northern coast of Africa opposite Sicily, was
attempting to gain the commercial leadership of the Mediter-
ranean and to add to her territory by the conquest of Sicily.
A company of brigands seized the Sicilian city of Messina, and
when attacked by the allied forces of Syracuse and Carthage,
they appealed to Rome for aid.   This began a terrible contest for
supremacy,[1] which ended in the destruction of Carthage and

Summary of the Cartha-ginian Wars   [1] The first war, which began in the manner described above, consisted
of an intermittent warfare of twenty-four years (264–241 B.C.).   Forced
to build a fleet in order to meet the Carthaginians on the sea, the Romans
became skillful sailors as a result of this war.   Carthage was compelled
to pay a large indemnity to Rome, and Sicily became a protectorate and
soon after the first province of Rome.

For over twenty years after the first Carthaginian War a semblance
of peace was maintained between Rome and Carthage.   In the mean-
time a great Carthaginian general, named Hannibal, completed the
conquest of the lower part of the Spanish peninsula which he organized
as a Carthaginian province.   Spain was rich in agricultural and mineral
products; hence Rome was unwilling to permit such valuable territory
to remain in the possession of her foes.   When an independent city on
the eastern shore of Spain, Saguntum, appealed to her for aid against
Hannibal, Rome again declared war on Carthage.   In this war (218–202
B.C.) Rome found an antagonist worthy of her steel.   Not waiting for
the Romans to strike the first blow, Hannibal led his army from Spain,
through the passes of the Alps, enduring terrible hardships, into the fer-
tile plains of northern Italy.   Within a few months he had defeated
three Roman armies and made the name of Hannibal ever fearful to the
Romans.   At length the Romans, wearying of the policy of delay, main-
tained by their leader Fabius in an attempt to exhaust the resources of
the Carthaginian army, resolved to muster an overwhelming force and

the mastery of the western Mediterranean by Rome—a contest which also led to Roman mastery in the eastern Mediterranean. Incensed at the Macedonian attempt to aid the Carthaginians in these wars, Rome sent her armies into the powerful kingdoms that had grown up on the ruins of Alexander's empire. One after the other, Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt were conquered or overawed by the young republic of the West. Macedonia was made a province; Egypt and Syria became protectorates. The Greek cities were plundered for their wealth and objects of art. The Mediterranean had become a Roman lake.

Carthage was nominally a republic, but her government was

to attempt to destroy Hannibal. The two armies met at Cannae, and although the Romans outnumbered the Carthaginians four to one, Hannibal's generalship won the day. The Roman army was nearly annihilated. After this overwhelming defeat the Romans feared that Hannibal would attack their city, but he thought best to secure reënforcements and to win to his side some of the Italian cities that were discontented with the tyrannical government of Rome. Unfortunately for Hannibal, the reënforcements did not arrive. His brother, who had been carrying on the war in Spain during his absence, was surprised by the Romans, while hurrying to Hannibal's aid, and his army destroyed. The first news of this disaster received by Hannibal was the bloody head of his brother, which, by order of the Roman general, was thrown into his camp soon after the battle.

For a few years thereafter Hannibal held his ground in southern Italy, but at last he was recalled to Carthage by a faction hostile to him. On the soil of his own country, practically betrayed by his treacherous countrymen, he made a last stand against the Roman Scipio, and received the first defeat of his brilliant career. Thus overwhelmed for the second time, Carthage ceded Spain to Rome, burned her navy, promised a huge indemnity, and agreed to become dependent upon Rome for her foreign policy. Rome was now the mistress of the West.

Scipio was the idol of the hour and received the honorary title of Africanus in recognition of his victory over Hannibal. He had previously destroyed the Carthaginian power in Spain, which was soon organized into two provinces of Rome. Yet Rome was still unsatisfied. Giving as a pretext that Carthage had acted treacherously toward an ally of Rome, the Romans forced the Carthaginians to give up their weapons. Cato, an austere Roman then prominent in public life, demanded that Carthage be destroyed. Scipio's grandson by adoption was commissioned to carry out the destruction of the ancient city, and after a short but bloody war (150–146 B.C.) the Roman legions took the city, burned it to the ground, and ploughed up its site, to efface it more surely from the memory of man.

no better than that of Rome, because the political power was con-
trolled by a few of the more wealthy families.   Her religion and
morals were those of the East, and many degrading beliefs were
held by her people.   The Carthaginians were not as good soldiers
as the Romans, hence the government employed many mer-
cenaries who deserted in time of danger.   If Carthage had won,
the whole trend of European history would have been changed.
The purer standards of the Romans prevailed and saved Europe
from as threatening an attempt to give her the civilization of
the East as was the Persian attack on Greece.

At the close of the first Carthaginian War Sicily became a
protectorate or protected state under the influence of the Roman
government.   Rome had the right to dictate to the nominal
ruler of Sicily what foreign policy he should pursue.   Little by
little Rome exercised more control over Sicily, until the power of
the native princes ceased entirely and Sicily was organized as a
province of the Roman republic.   Not long afterward the
islands of Sardinia and Corsica, the district of Cisalpine Gaul,
the peninsula of Spain, the northern coast of Africa, and Mace-
donia were successively erected into provinces.

The government of the provinces was quite different from
that of other Roman territories.   The provincials, until the
time of Caesar, were regarded as subjects of Rome and as sources
of revenue for those politically powerful in the home government.
The governor of a province, termed proconsul or propretor,
was chosen by the Roman senate to be the absolute military
commander, judge, and general executive officer over the
province.   He supervised the collection of the tribute due to
Rome, and the senate did not care how he secured this tribute.
As a result the administrations of these provincial governors
were notoriously corrupt.   The collecting of taxes was farmed
out, or put out on contract to a class of professional tax-gath-
erers, called publicans, whose methods were so cruel and arbitrary
that the name publican became a term of reproach in the prov-
inces.   (" Publicans and sinners," the Bible.)   In some cases

the provincials appealed to Rome to protect them from the greed of their rulers, who grew enormously wealthy on the money wrung from the people by repeated taxation. In every case the governors were able to buy their acquittal from the corrupt home senate. Cicero, a famous Roman writer and statesman, thus jests concerning the methods of one of these governors: " In the first year he could secure booty for himself; in the second year for his friends; in the third year for his judges." The proceeds of this dishonest system were employed by those in control of Roman politics to beautify the city of Rome and to furnish the common people with amusements. In this way the conscience of the Roman people became deadened to the evils suffered by the provinces. Rome was sowing for a terrible harvest.

37. Summary of Early Roman History. — The Roman republic, Europe's organizer, began in a settlement of shepherds upon seven hills near the mouth of the Tiber River. Because the Romans possessed what the Greeks lacked, the power of uniting city-states, this settlement became a regal city whose influence began to be felt throughout all Italy. Having driven out her kings, Rome adopted an aristocratic form of republican government. One by one she conquered her neighbors in Italy and showed her genius for organization by the governments she set up in them. Her greed led her to attack the Phenician colony of Carthage, her strongest rival for Mediterranean commerce. Even the great general Hannibal could not stop her armies, which overran Spain, northern Africa, Greece, and Asia Minor. The enormous profits of these wars caused the growth of a capitalistic class at Rome, which soon took possession of the government for its own purposes, displacing the former nobility and creating many difficult political and economic problems. How the attempts to solve these problems caused a vital change in the Roman government is the subject of the next chapter.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR
FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of the Mediterranean region the states, cities, sites of battles, rivers, and mountains mentioned in the chapter. Show the provinces gained by Rome during these wars. Relate the myth of Romulus and Remus, the Tarquins; read in some more extended work the account of the Decemvirs and their reforms; the organization of the Roman army; the gradual rise of the plebeians. Explain the significance of each of the names of Scipio (Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus). Relate the story of the destruction of Corinth.

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CHAPTER V

THE CHANGE FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

38. The Relations between Classes. — This period is one of
struggles which may be summed up under three principal heads:
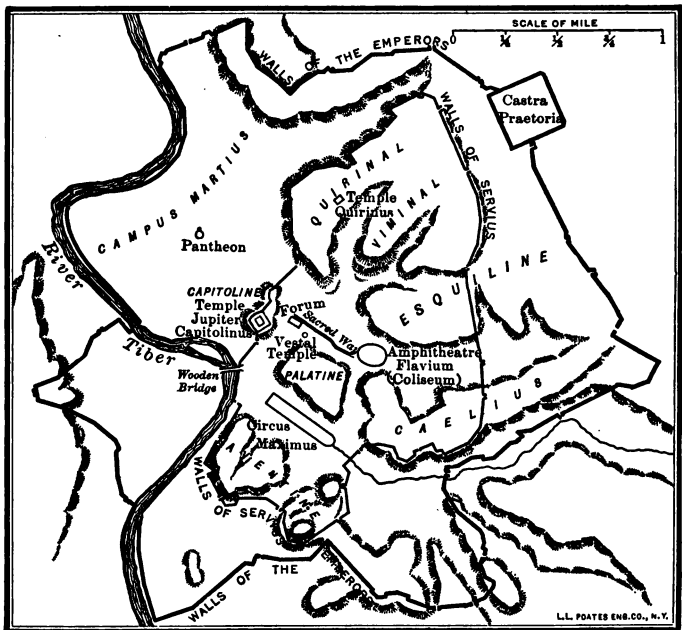
MAP OF THE CITY OF ROME

the struggle between the classes of people within the city of
Rome, the struggle between Rome and her subjects in the Italian
peninsula, and the struggle between Rome and her provinces.

GROWTH OF
ROMAN TERRITORY

SCALE OF MILES

0   100   200   300   400

Roman Roads
Roman Territory after War with Tarentum
Roman Territory after War with Carthage 133 B.C.
Roman Territory after Wars for Conquest of Mediterranean and Pompey's Conquests
Julius Caesar's Conquests
Added during Reign of Augustus
Later Conquests
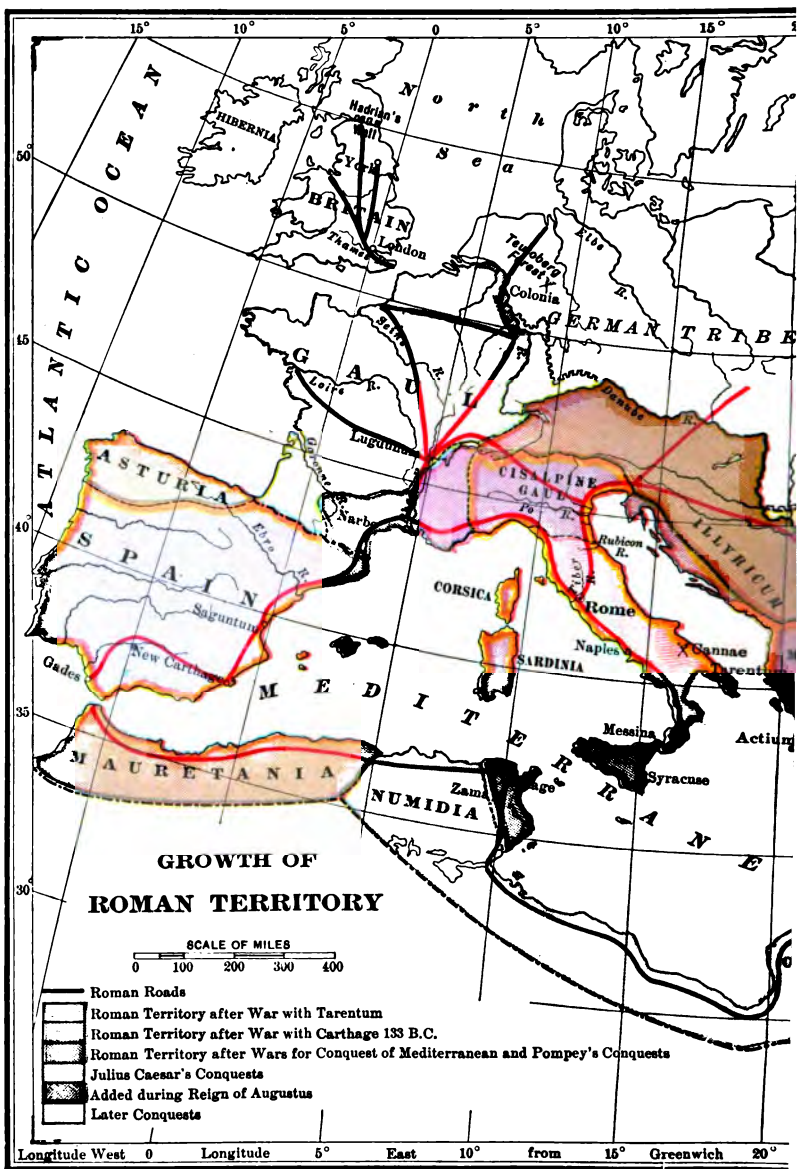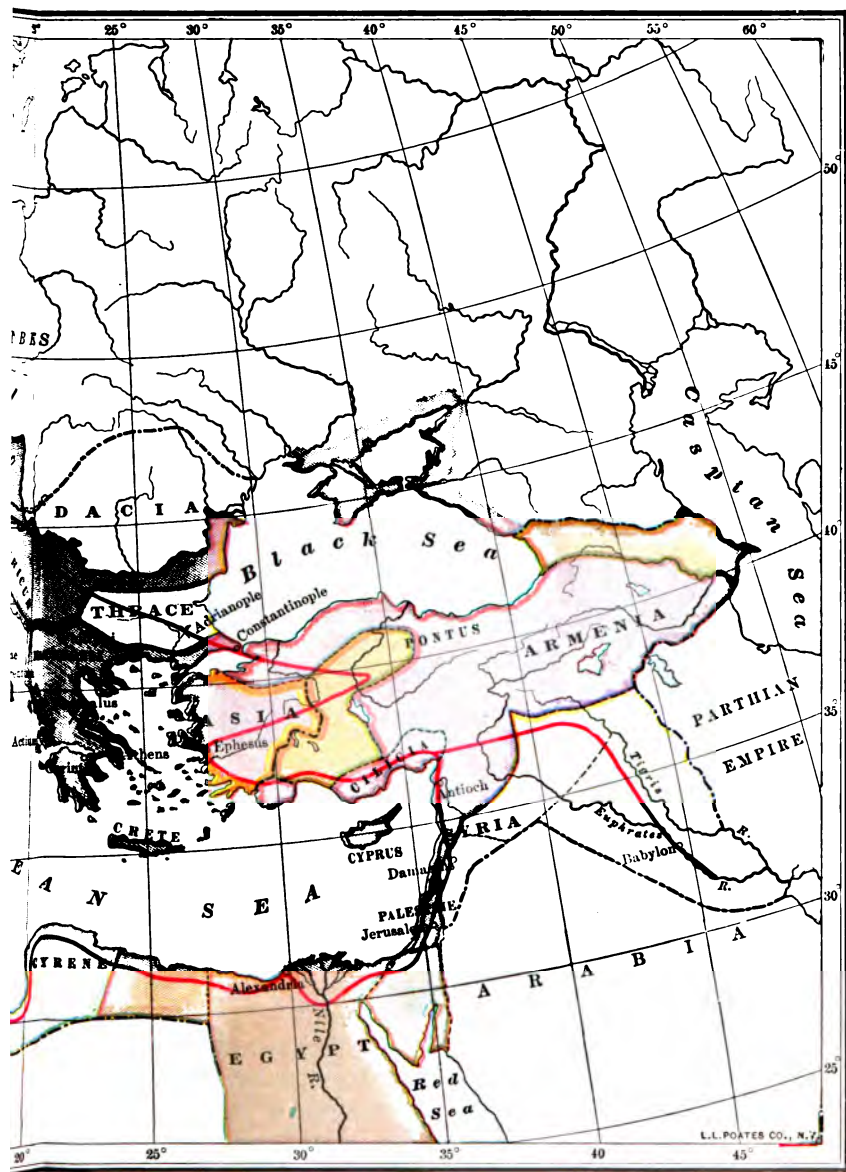
Class struggles are always very bitter.   The same struggle con-   Causes of
tinues to-day between the poorer class and those possessed of   Class Hatred
great fortunes.   These class dissensions existed also in old
Rome.   A few men took advantage of their influence in govern-
mental affairs to build up dishonest fortunes.   Others gained   (1) Growth of
wealth in perfectly legal ways, yet ways that worked hardship   Great For-
to those less able to make a success of their business.   To such   tunes

INTERIOR OF A HOUSE OF A WEALTHY ROMAN

unfortunates a wealthy man was an object of envy, because
they saw the rich man enjoying many luxuries of life that they
were unable to earn.   One reason for the growth of hatred
between the rich and poor was the great increase in wealth that
resulted from the wars.

Almost all of the rich men of the time imported costly foods
and articles of clothing from the more luxurious east.   It was   (2) Changes
thought fashionable to copy the manners and customs of the   in Roman
orientals because they were new to the Romans and seemed   Character
to give greater refinement to life.   This changed the character
of the wealthy Roman.   He became luxurious and lazy and

contemptuous of the old Roman virtues and ideals. But the poor did not change, so for this reason also the classes grew further apart.

(3) Lowering of Moral Standards   Another cause of class struggles was the lowering of moral standards. As in our own times, all the rich did not acquire their wealth honestly. Unless a man sets up for himself a good standard of honesty in business matters, he is apt to become weak in the power of choosing between right and wrong in other matters. This is what happened in Rome when the standards of business honesty declined. Although a few right-minded men saw that things were not being well done and attempted to preach reform, the mass of the people were eager to follow the example of those who seemed so successful in business. The result was that they regarded honesty and truth and virtue as old-fashioned.   The earlier Roman had been content to live frugally on his small estate, cultivating his fields with his own hand with the aid of his sons and servants. As Rome became the center of fashion and luxury, the Roman farmer of simple tastes and honest life was regarded by the city dwellers as more or less of a clown. In order to have any standing in the community, a man must own a large estate. Manual labor was despised. For this reason small farming became unprofitable. Soon those who had small farms were glad to dispose of them to the wealthy, who combined many of them into larger estates. The small farmer moved to Rome, where he speedily drifted into the position of a man without a job — the idler, ready to join the city mob of those who expected the rich to support them. He thus lost the old spirit of Roman independence and became a beggar, easily moved by crafty politicians to clamor for unwise laws of every description.[1]

(4) Decline of Small Farming and Growth of Mob Spirit

[1] The landless Roman who returned to Rome was, nevertheless, a voter in the popular assembly, the comitia tributa, or assembly of the tribes, which had displaced the assembly of the centuries. As the standard of morality declined, he was quite as justified in earning his livelihood by selling his vote as was the rich man who reaped a fortune from government contracts.

The rich man necessarily imported a great number of slaves to work his large farms. At the same time the poor freeman thought it beneath his dignity to work at the same task beside a slave. Deprived of work, he became a pauper dependent upon public charity. This gave him no love for the rich and led to class hatred.

39. Relations between Rome and her Subjects. — In the earlier days of the republic Rome's policy toward the conquered cities and races in Italy had been one of assimilation. By this is meant that Rome held out to a conquered city the promise of future incorporation into the Roman state. Perhaps this policy was not stated in as many words at the time. We may question whether the purposes of this policy were at any time wholly unmixed with a certain selfishness which led the Romans to understand that by conciliating their conquered foes they might themselves gain.

As Rome became more powerful she no longer felt the need of conciliating her subjects and allies in Italy. She accordingly granted the rights of Latin colonists no longer, and withdrew from many towns privileges already enjoyed. Thus the policy of assimilation was abandoned; a course which aroused as strong a spirit of resentment in the hearts of the subject Italians as did the legislation of the English parliament on the eve of our war for independence. But every attempt at revolt was ruthlessly crushed by the prefects sent by Rome.

The system of farming the taxes in the provinces (see p. 94) caused great hardships and led to discontent with Roman rule. In order to enforce their demands the governors called for large garrisons to prevent any political outbreak by the provincials. Governing by means of an army has caused many rebellions. The case of the English colonists in America is an illustration.

40. Plans to Correct these Evils. — That the Romans recognized that conditions were not wholesome is proved by the fact that several men tried to reform conditions, among them Cato and Scipio.

Cato

Marcus Cato, who lived at the time of the destruction of Carthage, belonged to a family of small landowners of ancient lineage and represented the ideals and virtues of old Rome. He despised the evidences of luxury and set no store on great wealth. Especially repugnant to him was the dishonesty of men in public and private life. As censor he exerted some influence in causing public condemnation of those who gave the strongest examples of wrongdoing. For many years he restrained the downward tendency of Roman morals.

Scipio Africanus

Scipio Africanus, the Younger, was a Roman noble, who had sadly carried out the order for the destruction of Carthage. He was a broader-minded man than Cato, yet lacked his determination, and on that account exerted even less influence for reform than Cato had done immediately before him. Both Cato and Scipio believed that a return to the old habits of life of the primitive Roman was necessary before the evils in the state could be corrected.

Tiberius Gracchus

A second plan for reform was urged by Tiberius Gracchus, the elder of two famous brothers. He was the grandson of that Scipio who had defeated Hannibal, and he inherited from his mother the same intrepid courage which had distinguished the elder Africanus. Although an aristocrat by birth, he was able to see the wrongdoing of his class; while his love of fair play made him champion the poor against the injustice of the rich. For this reason he was regarded as a traitor to his class. When as tribune of the people [1] he proposed that the government of Rome should confiscate all estates larger than five hundred acres (about two hundred and fifty of our acres), and that the lands

[1] The famous historian Mommsen says that he ruled practically as absolute ruler, "watched over the distribution of grain, selected jurymen, founded colonies in person, notwithstanding that his magistracy legally chained him to the city, regulated highways and concluded business contracts, led the discussions of the senate, settled the consular elections"; in short, he accustoned Rome to one-man rule. In many respects he was like one of our own recent presidents — honest, aggressive, fearless, sometimes lacking in tact, a master of politics — and he possessed the priceless gift of being able to attach people to himself.

thus secured should be divided into small farms and granted to worthy poor men on the sole condition that they should not sell them, he was actively opposed by the men of wealth.

There are many people who believe that the rights of man are higher and to be considered before the rights of property. Others argue that only by respecting the rights of property can the rights of man be secured.   This question is as live to-day as it was in the days of the Gracchi, and there are many honest men to be found upholding each side of the argument.   In short, Gracchus believed that the accumulation of large estates had been accomplished by harsh and unfair means, with the consequence that the small landholders had been deprived of their livelihood. He also believed that the veterans should be granted small farms on which to spend their declining years. The rich men feared that this policy would create a desire for greater concessions to the poor, as a result of which a complete change in the government would be brought about. They induced one of the tribunes to veto a law embodying the ideas of Gracchus.   Contrary to law, Gracchus induced the assembly to pass the law embodying his ideas over the tribune's veto **Land Laws** and also to arrange for a commission of three men to superintend the execution of the law.   This last was of great importance, for a law not enforced is of little value.

The rich men were enraged at the fear of losing their **Murder of** property and delayed the election of candidates for the city **Tiberius** offices until the mob rose to compel the reëlection of Tiberius, **Gracchus** who was again a candidate for the office of tribune.   Then the rich senators declared that he had incited rebellion against the government, and arming themselves, attacked him and his too zealous partisans.   In the street riot which followed Tiberius Gracchus was killed.   Like John Brown he attacked the rights of property, and in his zeal to bring about good, he broke the laws of his country and paid the penalty with his life, but his spirit went marching on.   In the next few years after his death the committee on the allotment of public lands provided by his

famous agrarian (land) law had settled nearly one hundred thousand small farms. If this movement could have continued, many of the evils that later overwhelmed the republic might have been averted; for the small farmer has more interest in the cultivation of his land and is more likely to be a sturdy, honest, patriotic citizen than the pampered aristocrat, whose every wish is anticipated by slaves and whose interest in his estate is limited to the amount of money he can get from it.

Reforms of Gaius Gracchus   Ten years later the younger brother, Gaius Gracchus, came forward with a third plan for reform; namely, to reëstablish the policy of assimilation, in order to win to the government the support and good-will of the provincials, also to encourage the needy Romans to colonize. On this platform he was elected tribune and had an opportunity to put his plan into execution.

Gaius established a Roman colony on the site of ruined Carthage, where many needy citizens found homes and fortunes. The members of the senate believed he was usurping their constitutional powers and took up arms against him as they had done against his brother. Another street battle was fought and history repeated itself. In despair over the fatal ending of his plans, Gaius committed suicide. Plutarch says the people showed how much they regretted the Gracchi, for they had statues of the two brothers set up and offered sacrifices on the spots where they fell.

The Americans in 1776 found it necessary to defy the established laws and precedents of the British nation. They took up the sword in rebellion to secure the rights they claimed under their understanding of the constitution of England. As a result, a new constitution was formed. The same thing happened at Rome. The Gracchi attempted to bring about reforms peacefully, yet were unwilling to abide by the laws of Rome. By aligning class against class and by accustoming Rome to one-man rule they did much to bring on a revolution whose end, however, was far from what they had wished to accomplish.

41. Civil Strife between Marius and Sulla. — Although the people revered the memory of the Gracchi, the wealthy were again in control of the government. They undid all the work of the brothers: the agrarian law was repealed; the colonies were recalled; the newly gained rights of the poor were all repealed or nullified. The government settled once more into its wallow in the mire of political corruption. The senate took bribes to allow Jugurtha to usurp the throne of a state dependent on Rome, but a few of the better minded senators forced the country to make war on him. In this war two of the strongest figures in Roman history received their training.

The first of these was Marius. He was born of an obscure family. Coarse and violent in nature, he was nevertheless brave and patriotic, and possessed great powers of concentration and endurance. A natural captain of men, he quickly rose to the chief command in the war, defeated Jugurtha, and sent him in chains to Rome. Two years later, as consul in command of the Roman army, he met the first onset of the Germanic race and defeated it in two great campaigns in southern Gaul and the valley of the Po. For five hundred years these barbarians were checked, and lingered on the borders of Roman civilization. On his return to Rome he was for the sixth time chosen consul, contrary to the constitution. He became the champion of the popular party, which was called the Marian party. When he attempted to force reforms upon the unwilling senate, street fighting again began between the senatorial and Marian parties, and as a result Marius lost popularity and went into exile.

In the meantime his great rival, Sulla, had come rapidly to the front. This young aristocrat had seen service in the Jugurthine War, in which Marius had first gained prominence, and it was Sulla who had brought the conquered Jugurtha to Rome. He soon became a leader of the senatorial party and bitterly opposed the illegal candidacy of Marius for the consulship. When Marius was for the time driven from public life, Sulla found a new antagonist in his own rank in the person of Drusus.

An aristocrat and son of the man who had been most opposed to the Gracchi, Drusus had become converted to the policy of assimilation and held that the Italians should all receive citizenship in the Roman state. When he attempted to secure the passage of such a law he was murdered by the aristocrats. His death aroused the Italians to a desperate revolt. The rebels had almost reached the gates of Rome when the Roman army under the leadership of Sulla met and totally defeated them. This victory made Sulla the logical candidate for leadership in the wars of Rome.

Mithridates, king of Pontus, a newly risen kingdom of the southeastern coast of the Black Sea, had taken advantage
Beginnings of Military Despotism of the civil strife in Italy to conquer Macedonia, Greece, and Asia. Just as the senate voted for war against Mithridates, the Marian party regained enough influence in the assembly to order Marius to the command of the Roman forces. Sulla hastily gathered his troops, marched on Rome, and frightened the assembly into a recognition of his right to leadership. This was an epoch-making event. The transition to empire was begun.

The Marian Reign of Terror Sulla set out for the East, conquered Mithridates in a wonderful campaign, and brought the rebellious provinces again under the sway of Rome. In his absence Marius returned to Rome and attempted to discredit the successful general, who was even then winning great victories for his country. For days the streets of Rome ran red with the blood of aristocrats who dared to oppose him. In the midst of this reign of terror Marius died, but his party remained in power for four years more.

The Triumph of Sulla His wars successfully ended, Sulla returned to Rome, the idol of his army. After overthrowing the hated rule of the Marian party, Sulla became virtually king. The senate voted him the title of perpetual dictator, and he took advantage of his power to inaugurate a complete return to the absolute rule of the senate. All the gains made by the popular party

were swept away. He retained his power by means of his
loyal army and through the influence of the gratified senate.
He rid himself of enemies by wholesale murders, and he posted
lists of the names of the men whose deaths he desired. These
lists were called proscription lists. Men whose names were
on these lists were outlawed and their murderers were rewarded.
Sulla is said to have remarked grimly upon one occasion: "I
have posted now (the names of) all those I can recall; I have
forgotten many, but their names will be posted as they occur
to me." After four years of absolute power, and after having
amassed an enormous fortune, consisting of the property con-
fiscated from those on the proscription lists, Sulla resigned
to the restored senate the control of the Roman empire and
then retired from public life. Apparently the work of fifty
years had been undone. Apparently the good old days of
corrupt government officials and grasping senators had come
again; really it was but a lull in the great storm that finally
swept away the last vestiges of republican Rome.

42. The Rise of Pompey. — The death of Sulla left Rome
leaderless for only a short time, for his unconstitutional inva-
sion of the city of Rome under arms produced important re-
sults.   Other generals came to Rome and secured election
to important positions and favors from the senate and
assembly by means of their army.   The first to threaten to Sertorius
do this was Sertorius, a leader of the popular party. For a
number of years he had lorded over Spain as governor and
he had openly defied Sulla to remove him. No serious effort
was made to punish him until after Sulla's death, which oc-
curred the year following his retirement into private life. Stung
by the fear that Sertorius was planning to lead his armies
across southern Gaul and through the passes of the Alps against
the city of Rome, the senate commanded Pompey to march
against him.

Pompey had served under Sulla, who had great affection
for him and had accordingly advanced him in military posi-

tions, for which he showed great ability. Pompey was an aristocrat of temperate habits, integrity of character, and possessed great personal magnetism, but at this time he was no match for the experienced Sertorius, who successfully resisted all his attempts to bring on a decisive battle. After five years' campaigning Sertorius was murdered by a lieutenant who hoped to receive a reward from Pompey.

On Pompey's return to Rome he found the senate struggling with domestic war. Spartacus, a famous gladiator, had stirred up a vast rebellion of slaves and gladiators. The last stand of the gladiators was in the north of Italy, where they were utterly crushed by Pompey on his return from Spain. He shared with the pretor, Crassus, the honors of this campaign, and both desired as recompense the office of consul. When this honor was refused them they joined forces and marched against Rome and forced the unwilling people to elect them both consuls.

Pompey and the Pirates   As the commerce and wealth of Rome increased there grew upon the shores of the Adriatic Sea a community of men whose sole trade was piracy. They plundered the rich merchant ships carrying the comforts and luxuries of the East to Rome. Because of other wars and the lack of a navy, the government of Rome had been unable to punish these robbers as they deserved. The pirates became so bold that they stopped ships loaded with grain and other necessities, and the people of Rome suffered from famine owing to their depredations. Provincial governors were powerless to check the pirates because they had no jurisdiction outside of their own provinces, whereas the pirates operated over the whole Mediterranean and could easily escape from the shores over which the pursuing governors' had authority. At this juncture Pompey was given absolute **Significance of Pompey's Position** power over all the shores haunted by the pirates until he had completed their conquest. The appointment of Pompey to this office is another important step towards empire. Never before had one man exercised dictatorial powers over so much

territory ruled by Rome.   Heretofore a dictator had been given power only in Italy and a governor only in his own province. Many of the senators realized the seriousness of granting so much power to one man, but they were powerless to stay the tide of popular enthusiasm which voted the office to Pompey.

Pompey justified the trust imposed in him.   In a whirl-wind campaign of less than two months he swept the pirate

CICERO DENOUNCING CATILINE

A profligate nobleman, Catiline, organized a conspiracy to overthrow the government. In this plot he was seconded by the more reckless of the popular party. The conspiracy was detected and Catiline denounced in the senate by one of the consuls, a great orator named Cicero. As a result the leaders were executed. Cicero believed Caesar was a party to this plot, and a life-long hostility between these men arose.

fleets from the sea and cleaned out every pirate stronghold on the shores of the Mediterranean.   Just at this time Mith-ridates of Pontus renewed the struggle with Rome, and the lieutenant of his former conqueror was sent to reconquer him. Pompey speedily crushed Mithridates and turned on into Armenia, whose king he humbled.   For five years Pompey marched here and there in Asia Minor, receiving the submis-

sion of all the kings and remodelling the administrations of the provinces. He also created new provinces from the conquered kingdoms. At the end of this work he returned to Italy and returned to the Roman people the office intrusted to him. He was unquestionably the greatest Roman at that particular time. Had he been as great in politics as he was in war, he might have prevented the foolish quarrelling then going on in Rome. He had, however, become ambitious for higher honors. Soon after his return he formed a secret agreement with his old ally, Crassus, who had become immensely wealthy from his governmental contracts, and with a daring aristocrat named Julius Caesar. This agreement had no official recognition, yet it was, nevertheless, an attempt at tyranny by three men at the same time.

Character of Caesar

43. The Rise of Julius Caesar. — Gaius Julius Caesar was a member of one of the oldest families of Rome. His aunt was the wife of Marius and his first wife was also of the Marian party, so he was popular with the democrats. He was a medium-sized man with a striking face and personality. His most noticeable traits were his ambition to influence other men, his desire for fame, his unusual capacity for hard and exhaustive work, both physical and mental, his military foresight and daring. These characteristics were not at first apparent, for he spent his boyhood and early manhood in idle sports and amidst the degrading associations of the majority of his class. When Sulla came into power Caesar was compelled to flee in disguise from Rome. After many romantic adventures he returned to Rome soon after Sulla's death and became an active worker in the popular party.

Reasons for Formation of the Triumvirate

An ill-timed uprising of the discontented at Rome temporarily clouded Caesar's popularity, and he was forced to seek an alliance with Pompey, but lately returned from his successes in the East. The senate was envious of Pompey's distinction and denied him new honors, so he was glad to secure an ally. Crassus was the third member of this triple alliance

and added his immense fortune to the political sagacity of Caesar and the renown of Pompey, with immediate results. The bewildered senators found themselves unable to carry through any plan opposed by the three. Caesar was elected consul, Pompey's policy in the East was approved, and Crassus was given opportunities to augment his wealth. Cicero, the spokesman of the conservative senators, was discredited and driven into exile. Thus secure at home, Caesar turned to further triumphs. **Its Work**

At the expiration of his consulship, he was elected governor of most of Gaul for five years. Here he drove back from the Rhine the Germans, who were attempting to cross into Gaul, made the rebellious Swiss acknowledge Roman sway, and twice invaded Britain. He established the northeastern boundary of the Roman dominion at the Rhine, thus adding all of modern France to Rome's possessions. At the conclusion of his first term he secured reappointment. During these years Cicero's term of banishment expired. He returned to Rome and rallied around him the disheartened aristocrats, who now clearly saw the trend of affairs and who put aside their personal friendships to save Rome from the tyranny which would result if the general returned to Rome for the purpose of seizing the reins of government. These senators were soon to receive a powerful ally. **Caesar's Campaigns in Gaul**

In the midst of his campaigns in the East, Crassus died, and at almost the same time Caesar's daughter, whom Pompey had married, died. There was no longer any bond of union between Caesar and Pompey. The senatorial party saw its opportunity. They made Pompey jealous of Caesar, whose more recent exploits in Gaul were making the fickle people forgetful of the former's great deeds against Mithridates. Caesar felt the breach growing between himself and Pompey and tried unsuccessfully to justify himself in the eyes of the senate. When he heard that the senate was preparing to take active measures against him he took up his winter quarters **Breach between Caesar and Pompey**

at Ravenna, the principal town in Cisalpine Gaul, which is located on the Po River, not far from the boundary line of his province — the Rubicon River. At length the blow fell. The senate passed a decree ordering Caesar to resign his governorship of Gaul under penalty of being declared a traitor if he refused. Caesar knew that if he obeyed it would leave Pompey master of Rome. He naturally refused to resign his command unless Pompey would agree to do so also. Pompey remained singularly inactive at this time. Instead of collecting an army and taking active measures against Caesar, he relied more upon the magic of his former fame.

Caesar, at the little town of Ravenna,[1] now struck hard. It was against the law for a governor to enter Roman territory at the head of his army. Even Pompey had obeyed this law on his return from the East. Caesar crossed the Rubicon and seized town after town on Roman soil. Pompey and the senate seemed paralyzed. The adherents of Caesar got the upper hand at Rome and Pompey retired to Greece to
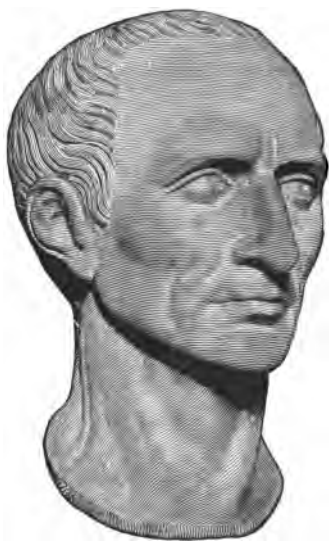
JULIUS CAESAR

[1] "He had every reason to be indignant. All that had gone well with Pompey had gone ill for him. Together they had courted the crowd, corrupted the nation, opposed the senate — all to win glory, riches, and power. But Pompey had not been forced to mount the ladder of office by slow degrees. Thrice consul, his victories had made him the greatest general of his day; he had won the respect of the great without losing the admiration of the humble. Caesar with endless intrigues and difficulty and danger had climbed into office. He was the most despised and best hated man among the upper classes." (Ferrero.) Now the senatorial class sought to deprive him of the fruits of his hard work in his province.

await Caesar.   However, Caesar was unable to follow him
for the time, owing to lack of transports.   In the meantime
Spain, sympathizing with Pompey, shut off her shipments
of grain to Rome.   Spain was at this time the granary of Rome
and without her aid the citizens of Rome would soon have
starved.[1]   Caesar lost no time in leading his legions into Spain,
where the forces of the sympathizers with Pompey were speedily
defeated and the embargo on the grain trade was removed.
This accomplished, Caesar returned to Rome and received the
gratitude of the people.   He was elected dictator and soon after-
wards consul.   Now in a position to attack Pompey, he followed
him into Thessaly.   At the almost bloodless battle of Pharsalus,
Pompey's troops refused to fight against Caesar, and Pompey
fled from the field, a discouraged and beaten man.   Caesar was
master of the Roman republic.[2]

44. The Rule of Julius Caesar. — The servility of the Offices held
senate and assembly to Caesar was remarkable.   A short by Caesar
time before he had been denounced as a demagogue, the
leader of a motley rabble, a second Catiline.   He now was
elected dictator for a term of ten years (later for life) and the
titles of " Father of his Country " and Imperator, or general-
in-chief for life, were conferred upon him.   Already pontifex
maximus or high priest, he was also elected censor and con-
sul.   He had all the powers of a king, yet he hesitated to take
the last step and announce the end of the republic.   He preferred
to pose as its foremost citizen.

As soon as he had put down the final effort of the senatorial His Reforms
party, which was made in Africa and Spain shortly after he
defeated Pompey, he turned his attention to the evils that
were troubling Rome.   Government corruption, wholesale

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[1] We have only to imagine the effect on a large city like New York of
the cutting off of all lines of communication and the stopping of incoming
commerce in order to understand the seriousness of the crisis at Rome.

[2] Soon after this Pompey was murdered at the command of Ptolemy,
king of Egypt, who hoped thereby to win the support of Caesar in a struggle
for the throne.

seizure of government lands by private persons, oppression of the poor, slavery, unfair taxation were considered in turn. He distributed thousands of acres, confiscated from those who held them illegally, to worthy soldiers, and also borrowed from Gracchus the policy of establishing colonies in distant provinces to serve as homes for the poor. He revived the policy of assimilation by the passage of a law incorporating Spain and Gaul within the Roman state. As censor he corrected some of the evils in the government and in the tax lists. The Julian Law concerning municipalities provided for a uniform system of city government throughout the empire and promoted freedom among the inhabitants. As pontifex maximus he reformed the calendar to make the year consist of 365 days instead of 355 days as before. He introduced a new gold coin, the aureus, and provided a just method of paying debts together with interest, in these ways aiding commerce.

Growth of Feeling against Caesar

Many of his plans were cut short by his death, among them the drainage of the marshes, the enlargement of the port of Rome, the erection of large public buildings, and a campaign against the Parthians. He grew wearied and irritable. He had lived hard, and although only fifty-six years of age, he was growing very old. He began to distrust everyone and his friends whispered that he was growing insane.[1] His good judgment seemed to desert him. His enemies convinced many of his friends that they must free Rome of what they fancied was a great evil.

[1] Although he proposed wonderful laws which brought good to Rome he often acted foolishly. He became infatuated for a time with Cleopatra, the queen of Egypt, and erected a statue of her in a temple dedicated to Venus. His former friend, Brutus, a sincere if somewhat conceited descendant of a very illustrious Roman family, was convinced that Caesar desired to restore a monarchy. Cicero, who for a time had been less hostile to Caesar, perceived that Caesar had no real intention of preserving the republic. Caesar probably induced his lieutenant, Antony, to offer him the kingly crown at one of the religious festivals. He refused it three times, but the whole proceeding further exasperated Brutus and his faction.

Caesar was accustomed to attend all important meetings, partly to show the people that he meant to maintain the old customs of the republic, and partly to prevent any action hostile to his plans. One day in March (44 B.C.), as he entered the senate, a group of men surrounded him with petitions. While he was considering these, at a signal twenty daggers were buried in his body. " The tyrant was dead, but the tyranny still lived."   *Death of Caesar*

Julius Caesar was one of the greatest men of all history. While the lasting effects of his work are few, they are of the utmost importance. Like some other men of history he died at a time most fortunate for his future fame. The intended campaign against the Parthians would have taken Caesar far from Rome and might have added little to his reputation; and there were many strong men in Rome who might have undermined his popularity. Few men have been so many sided. He was great as a soldier, a governor, a lawmaker, a judge, a moulder of public thought, and a historian. He was weak because of vanity, selfishness, and lack of self-control. . Yet on the whole the world is much better because such a man lived.   *Estimate of his Work*

45. Summary of the Change from Republic to Empire. — The growth of large fortunes resulting from foreign wars caused great discontent and suffering at Rome. A struggle to better the condition of the poor caused the formation of parties and an attempt upon the part of the subjects of Rome to win their freedom. In the resulting disorder it became possible for successful army leaders to control the government of Rome.

The government of the Roman republic, never a democracy, had been controlled at first by the nobles and later by the men of great wealth, who formed a new aristocratic class known as the senatorial party. The wealthy had to control the government in order to prevent the passage of laws which would make them contribute their just share to the expenses

THE GOVERNMENT OF ROME DURING THE REPUBLICAN PERIOD

ELEMENTS No.	COMPOSITION CHOICE	POWERS LIMITATIONS
Consuls 2	chosen annually by centuries	War-chiefs in Italy only. Leaders in foreign affairs
Pretors 2	ditto	Judges
Ediles (Aediles) 4	ditto ditto by tribes	Police and public works board
Dictator 1	chosen by consul with consent of senate in time of danger to Rome	Absolute ruler Term not over six months
Tribunes 2	chosen annually by tribes (later additional tribunes were elected)	Power of veto Must not leave Rome Leader of Could not tribes be reëlected
Censors 2	chosen for five-year term	Power of depriving nobles of their rank because of their duty of making up the census of the senate
The Senate	During good behavior a noble was member of the senate. Vacancies in the senate were filled by the censors, who appointed former city officials to fill the place	"The foremost political corporation of all time." As no official found it expedient to bring forward any public measure without the senate's approval, this body became the real government of Rome. The democracy of the assemblies was a show

The Assemblies
   (1) Comitia curiata. Very important in the regal period, but a
        mere shadow in the later republic period. Composed
        of the heads of the curias
   (2) Comitia of the centuries. Composed of the wealthier and nobler
        citizens. Met to elect important officers. (See above)
   (3) Comitia of the tribes. The law-making body, composed of
        the landholders of the country districts, together with
        all citizens of the city

of the state.   That this was unjust to the poor was evident to many high-minded men, some of whom sacrificed their lives in the vain attempt to change conditions.   Affairs went from bad to worse until military heroes, posing as champions of the poor, overturned the mock republican constitution, substituting for it a military despotism.   Civil war resulted in the establishment of a one-man government, controlled by Julius Caesar, who combined in his person all the offices of importance and was virtually the first emperor of the Roman empire.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Were the Gracchi justified in disobeying the laws of Rome?   At what time did the revolution begin?   Make a statement for your note-book, summarizing the steps in the progress of the change from republic to empire.   How were the gladiators trained?   What would have been the result if Caesar had obeyed the command of the senate instead of crossing the Rubicon with his army?   Show that the government as ruled over by Caesar was a compromise between the hero-worship of the masses and the conservatism of the aristocrats.   Write in your note-books a biographical sketch of Cicero.   Compare the characters and public careers of Marius and Caesar; Sulla and Pompey.   Why was Caesar the greatest man of his time?

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CHAPTER VI

THE ROMAN EMPIRE

46. The Empire a Settled Fact. — The murderers of Caesar had counted on popular approval of their violent deed; instead, they found it necessary to flee from Rome in order to save their lives. The furious soldiers of Caesar, under the leadership of his heir, Octavius,[1] his close friend, Marc Antony, and his lieutenant, Lepidus, followed the conspirators into Greece. These three men had been appointed a triumvirate to restore the state. They defeated the conspirators at the battle of Philippi, and thus gained absolute control of the Roman world, which they then divided between themselves.[2] Octavius soon forced Lepidus to resign his honors, leaving the

OCTAVIUS

Augustus Caesar, the Illustrious.

[1] Caesar, having no son to succeed to his power, had formally adopted his grandnephew, Octavius, and had a law made that the latter should be his heir.

[2] Lepidus received Italy; Octavius took Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa; Antony was given Gaul.

mastery in the hands of Antony and himself. In the re-arrangement of lands Antony chose the wealthy East, while Octavius chose the West.[1] After perfecting his plans Octavius brought about a breach between Antony and himself, and when war was begun between their forces Antony's fleet was beaten at the battle of Actium. Antony soon afterwards committed suicide, leaving Octavius supreme. On his return to Rome he received all the titles and honors which had been bestowed upon his illustrious uncle. The Roman world, weary of war and hopeless of a restoration of the republic, made no further struggle against the establishment of a monarchy. Octavius took the title of Augustus (the illustrious), 27 B.C., and ruled Rome according to the example set him by his uncle.

The Principate   Cold in disposition, calculating, and selfish, Augustus is one of the strangest men of history. He was insignificant in personal appearance and tricky in character, and yet his reign was one of great importance to the empire. His caution in making decided changes in the government and the absence of strong rivals aided him greatly. The senate continued to rule in the city of Rome, yet it was strongly guided by the emperor in his rôle of princeps or first citizen. In the provinces the emperor was supreme as the representative in his person of the Roman people. This arrangement whereby the senate and emperor seemingly had coördinate

[1] Antony chose the East because he wished to have control of the immensely wealthy empire of Egypt, which was then ruled over by the fascinating Cleopatra. (See p. 114.) Cleopatra was the sister of Ptolemy, the murderer of Pompey. Her cause had been espoused by Caesar and for a number of years she had ruled in Egypt under his protection. After his death she decided to captivate Antony, who seemed to her the probable successor of Caesar. He readily fell a victim to her charm of mind and beauty of person and remained inactive at her court while Octavius took measures against his inheritance. After the battle of Actium, Antony deserted his fleet and returned to Egypt, where shortly afterward he committed suicide. Cleopatra, unwilling to grace the triumph of Octavius, also died by her own hand.

powers is sometimes spoken of as the dyarchy (dual rule), or as the principate. The history of the first three centuries of the empire is a story of alternating principates and military despotisms.

Augustus organized the government of Rome without arous- ing the jealousy of the senate. He divided up the duties of administration between different departments, renewed the work of colonization, encouraged manufacturing and commerce, took a census of the empire for the purpose of aiding his tax collectors, and built many public roads and other public works. During his reign the Latin language received its high- est state of development. This was largely due to his patro- nage of literature. Indeed the period is named in his honor the Augustan age of Latin. Among the great writers of this period were three poets who should be remembered. The greatest was Vergil, who wrote in magnificent hexameter verse the story of the wanderings of Aeneas. (See page 32.) The Aeneid, while a story of the Trojan hero, is really a glorification of Rome and of Augustus, whose descent the poet traced from divine origin. In this way he flattered his imperial patron, as did the sculptor of the statue pictured on page 119. The figure of Cupid at the base was intended to show the divinity of the emperor. Another poet of the time was Vergil's friend Horace, whose work consisted of short, witty poems containing bril- liant glimpses into the life and thought of the Romans of his day. The most noteworthy writer of prose during this period was the historian Livy, who composed a history of Rome from earliest times to that of Augustus. Several portions of this history have been lost, but from those that remain we gain a considerable fund of information, partly based on tradition, yet at least partly accurate. (See page 82.)

The empire gained no important territory to the north during this reign, for while attempting the conquest of the lands of the Germans between the Rhine and Elbe rivers, the German hero Arminius, or Herman the Great, defeated the Roman

legions under the command of Varus. Augustus was content thereafter with the Rhine for his northern boundary. In the southeastern part of Europe, he was more successful, for three important provinces between the Alps and the Danube River were added to the empire. After the death of Cleopatra, he annexed Egypt to the empire. To defend the empire, Augustus created a standing army of about three hundred thousand men. Of this army he was commander-in-chief, or Imperator. By virtue of its power he was Emperor. It was recruited largely from the newer provinces, and its members were very loyal to the emperor, for they knew that when they became veterans

A   B
ROMAN COINS
A. Nero Caesar Augustus.   B. Trajan.

in the service, their emperor would grant them a pension, even allot to each a farm. In times of peace these soldiers acted as engineers, constructing the great military roads, bridges, and the walls which guarded the most dangerous portions of the frontier.

Tiberius,
Caligula,
Claudius

47. Summary of the Political History of the Early Empire. — His immediate successors were hated by the nobles because they showed favor to the provincials and commoners. Doubtless each was less forbidding, less cruel, and less vicious than he has usually been painted. During the reign of Tiberius, the adopted son of Augustus, the crucifixion of Christ occurred. Claudius attempted the conquest of southern Britain.

The historian of this period was Tacitus. One of his earliest works was a life of Agricola, his father-in-law, whom we shall meet later in studying the conquest of Britain. Tacitus also wrote a description of the German peoples from which we shall make quotations. His greatest work was a history of the Roman Empire from Tiberius to Domitian. If we may

RUINS OF THE CLAUDIA

An aqueduct completed by the Emperor Claudius. These arches extending originally more than seven miles across the plain, carried the pure water of the hills to the residents of Rome. The structure was nearly a hundred feet high.

compare the Latin and Greek historians, Livy resembles Herodotus, while Tacitus is more like Thucydides. His estimate of the character of the early emperors was extremely unfavorable, and he paints in lurid relief all their vices and cruelties.

Nero, the stepson of Claudius, came to the throne when a boy. He was of a happy disposition, and had studied under Seneca, a teacher of philosophy, some of whose writings impress us with respect for his high ideals. As Nero entered young manhood he fell under bad influences. Suspecting his old friend Seneca of plotting against him, he had him executed. With all restraint removed, he thereafter plunged into all sorts of foolish and harmful pursuits, even appearing in the

arena as a gladiator. During his reign a terrible fire swept through Rome, destroying a large part of the city. It was whispered that the emperor had himself caused the fire in order to amuse himself by watching the grand though terrifying spectacle. Perhaps he wished to get rid of the narrow, dirty streets and ugly dwellings of the Rome of his day, and to erect beauti-

A STREET IN POMPEII AS IT APPEARS TO-DAY

Note the paved roadway, the sidewalks and curbing, the stepping stones at the street corner (in the background), the city block arrangement and brick constructon of the houses, the square watering basin in the foreground.

First Persecution of the Christians A.D. 64   ful buildings in their places. However, Nero put the blame on the Christians, and charging them with a conspiracy, had them torn to pieces by savage beasts, or covered with tar and set to burn as living torches to light his gardens. It is not surprising that after a few years of tyranny the people rose against him and he fell by his own hand.

The Flavian Emperors   After a brief interval of military despotism one strong general, Vespasian, was able to establish his family, the Flavian, in the principate. Titus, his older son, besieged

the city of Jerusalem and punished it for a rebellion of the Jews by destroying the famous temple, carrying back the sacred vessels to Rome. During the reign of Titus, Mount Vesuvius destroyed under a shower of ashes and lava the beautiful cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum. These are being excavated and may be visited by the traveler to Naples in Italy. He may see the ruined walls of the first stories of the buildings, the paved streets, showing the wheel-tracks of long-since crumbled chariots, or may step aside into the market place or shattered amphitheater, no longer humming with life. The third Flavian emperor, Domitian, was hated by the nobles as bitterly as was Tiberius. He completed the conquest of Britain and persecuted the Christians for the second time.

At last the nobles of the senate murdered Domitian and chose a Spanish senator, Nerva, as their emperor. His adopted son and successor Trajan, pushed the boundaries of the empire across the Danube, adding the province of Dacia, and extended his dominions in the East to the Euphrates. The third persecution of the Christians took place during his reign. (See p. 134.) Trajan's famous kinsman, Hadrian, caused to be constructed the frontier wall in Britain that bears his name. (See p. 195.) His successors, the two Antonine emperors, were men of blameless character and high ideals who greatly strengthened the government of Rome. One of the sayings of Marcus Aurelius Antonius expresses the philosophy of their reigns. " The best way to avenge thyself is not to become like him who did thee wrong." The writings of Marcus Aurelius have been preserved in his book, " Meditations," and show that he had the noblest ideals of all the Roman emperors. After Marcus Aurelius, Roman history becomes for the most part a dreary record of military despotisms in which the imperial title was often put up at auction by the pretorian guard, the picked bodyguard of the emperors. Some of these military adventurers, who are known as the barrack emperors, were men of

(margin notes) Trajan and Hadrian

The Antonines

infamous character, but who possessed sufficient wealth to
buy the army's support.   During this period the policy of
universal citizenship within the empire, for which so many
great men had given up their lives, finally triumphed.   Every
freeman in the empire was granted citizenship.

48. Social Conditions during the Early Empire. — The
great wealth of a few prominent families of Rome, together
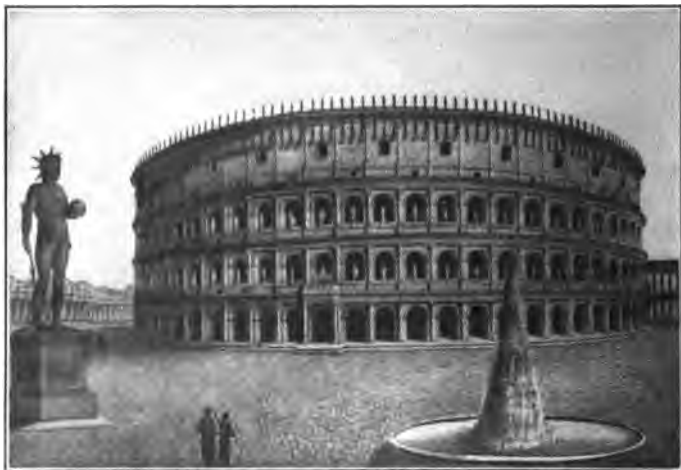
RESTORATION OF THE COLOSSEUM
This is probably the way it appeared in the days of the Empire.   To-
day it is in ruins.

with slavery, tended to degrade the national character during
the early empire.   The idle freeman demanded amusement
and refreshment.   The Greek theater was brought over with
its comedies, and pantomimes were frequently presented,
because the Roman wanted to be amused, not instructed, by
his drama.   Many attended the races at the Circus Maxi-
mus, a huge stadium or athletic park built between two of the
Roman hills, tier upon tier of seats rising on either side to
accommodate the two hundred thousand spectators who some-
times crowded them.
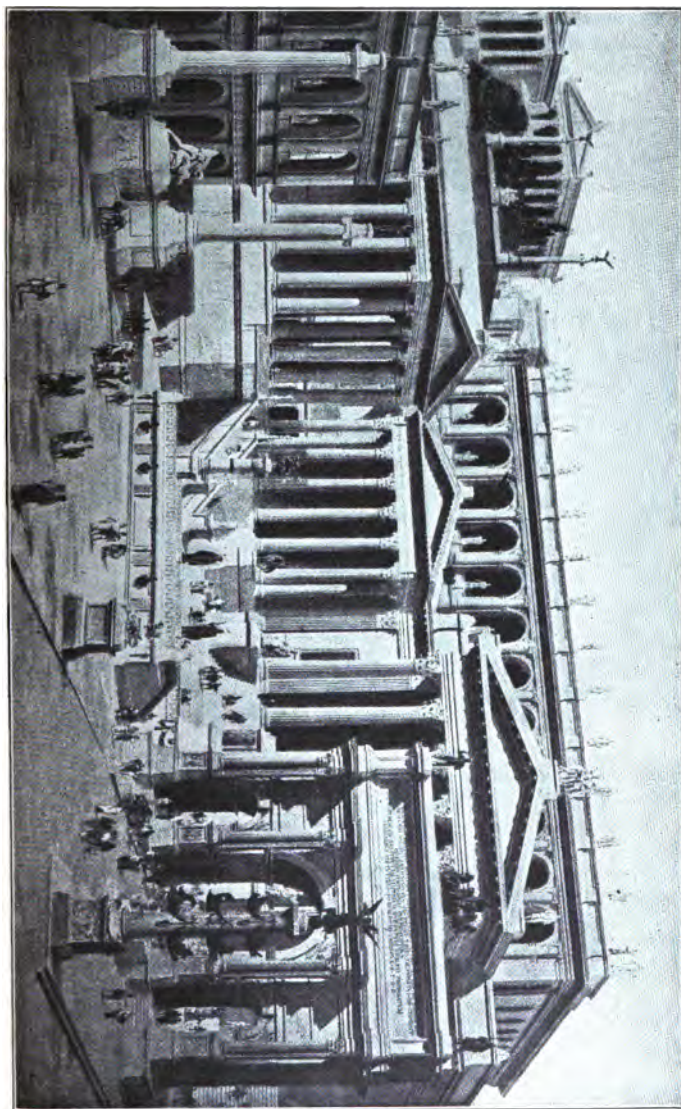
WEST SECTION OF THE FORUM — RESTORED

EAST SECTION OF THE FORUM — RESTORED

Not far from the forum or principal public square of Rome, the Flavian emperors built the famous structure known as the Colosseum, a huge, elliptical pile of masonry in which were held gladiatorial combats and other public spectacles. Around the sides were tiers of seats rising over one hundred feet in the air, which accommodated eighty thousand spectators, who were protected from the sun by awnings. The central part of

POLLICE VERSO

The victorious gladiator turns to the spectators to learn if he shall kill the vanquished — the fatal signal is given by pointing downward with the thumbs.

the amphitheater was open to the sky, and underneath the floor upon which the gladiators fought were corridors and cells in which were kept the wild beasts used in the battles between men and animals. Although used for centuries as a stone quarry for the palaces of the medieval Roman lords, it is still the most impressive ruin in the Eternal City.

The gladiatorial contests were spectacular dramas in which the actors fought bloody duels or reproduced famous battles.

The gladiators were trained fighters. Many of them were as famous in their day as are the pugilists of present times.

The luxurious living of the wealthier Romans caused many

ON THE APPIAN WAY IN THE DAYS OF ROMAN MAGNIFICENCE

Leading south from Rome, the Appian Way, one of the great Roman roads, was for a considerable distance a street of tombs of great magnificence. Some of these may be seen in the background. It also was a promenade for the wealthy. At the right, a flower girl holds out a bouquet toward the noble lady, carried in her litter on the shoulders of Nubian slaves. But she is interested in the conversation of a Roman, a dandy, as we can tell by the wreathed locks and the tame monkey on his arm, the latest fashionable whim. Slightly to her rear, appears a Roman senator, whose stocky appearance and stern aspect would appear at home in Wall Street to-day. At the extreme left a company of Parthian soldiers is passing a young Roman matron, who, in company with an admirer, is exhibiting her skill as a charioteer. Unlucky peasant boy in the foreground! He should have known better than to have been in the way of people of birth and wealth.

evils in Roman society. As the cost of living increased the Romans did not scruple to expose their infants to die in order to escape the expense of a family. Divorce became very common and happy family life a rarity. As the principate changed

into a military tyranny, and as the Romans saw the imperial title openly purchased by undeserving men, public honesty became almost unheard of. While morals declined, the best in literature and art also decayed. The Romans lost the power to create new ideas. But there was working within the empire a force so powerful that it was later able to revolutionize conditions.

The Roman government at first tolerated all religions. **Pantheon** There still stands in Rome a beautiful building called the Pantheon, which was erected during the reign of Augustus. " It is a circular structure one hundred and thirty-two feet in diameter and of the same height, surmounted by a majestic dome that originally flashed with tiles of bronze. The interior is flooded with light from an aperture in the dome. The inside walls were formed of splendid columns of yellow marble, supporting noble arches, upon which rested more pillars and another row of arches up to the base of the dome. Under the arches in pillared recesses stood the statues of the gods of all religions; for this grand temple was symbolic of the grander toleration and unity of the Roman world." (West, " Ancient World.") Yet toward the Christians the Roman government showed hostility. The reasons for this attitude are not hard to find. Secret meetings were suspicious in the eyes of the government. Tiberius had officers, called delators, whose duty was to spy upon such meetings or upon public men and to bring accusations of treason against them. The Christians persisted in holding secret meetings, and thus were suspected of treason. Furthermore, the Christians refused to worship the Emperor. This seemed to confirm the charge of treason against them.

That the government was puzzled how to proceed against them is shown by the following letter written by Pliny, the governor of the province of Bithynia, asking Trajan for instructions. " I have never taken part in the trial of Christians, therefore I do not know for what crime nor to what

THE PANTHEON

From model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

extent it is the custom to punish or investigate.   Therefore I

INTERIOR OF THE PANTHEON

have followed this cus-
tom in regard to those
charged with being
Christians." He goes on
to say that he was
gentle to those who
would recant, but those
who would not do so he
had no option but to
put to death. In conse-
quence the new religion
spread so rapidly that it
became a serious prob-
lem to him, especially so
as, after making inquir-
ies, he found that the
Christians had no beliefs

dangerous to the empire. Trajan laid down the following rules for the treatment of Christians: " They ought not to be sought out; but if they are brought to trial and convicted, they ought to be punished, provided that he who denies that he is a Christian, and proves this by making prayers to our gods, shall secure pardon on repentance."

A second reason for the persecution of the Christians was because they felt that in a sense they were better than the average Roman of their day. They would not mix with them in social gatherings because the Romans offered up libations to the heathen gods. They would not visit the circus nor attend the gladiatorial games, for these things were " of the world and they were not of the world."

From a religious standpoint the Roman could not understand the mental position of the Christians. The Roman was ready to accept any new divinity. Were a crazy man to arise in the streets of Rome and proclaim a new religion there would be plenty of men who would glady build altars to the new god. The Christian, however, would neither accept the gods of the Romans nor permit the Roman to worship his God unless he would give up his other gods. The Roman government persecuted the Christians because politically, socially, and from the standpoint of religion they were an alien people. Yet, notwithstanding the terrible persecutions, Christianity spread rapidly throughout the Roman empire of the West.

49. The Reorganized Empire and the Triumph of Christianity. — After the military misrule of the third century a soldier of peasant origin succeeded to the imperial title. He detected two elements of weakness in the government: first, the lack of any law of succession, a defect which had made the imperial power the plaything of successful generals; second, insufficient system in the administration — the emperor had no suitable officials on whom to rely for the faithful governing of the city of Rome while he was campaigning on the frontier. To remedy these defects he reorganized the entire imperial system. Instead

Government of the Reorganized Empire

of one emperor there were to be two of equal authority. Each of these should select a man to fill the office of Caesar (a title equivalent to vice-emperor). This system of partnership emperors secured a peaceful succession to the throne and better means to combat attempts at rebellion. Diocletian, the organ-

284-305 A.D. izer of this system, divided the empire into four parts, each under the rule of one of the emperors or Caesars. These four districts were further divided and redivided into dioceses and provinces. He also ceased to call upon the senate for advice, so that the principate or dyarchy established by Augustus came to an end. The absolute character of the new government revealed itself in greater pomp and display at court.

Last Persecution of the Christians   During his reign one of the Caesars ordered a persecution of the Christians, which for a decade caused great suffering. The Christians were too numerous, and after ten years of oppressive measures, such as the destruction of Christian churches and the execution of members of the faith, the government saw the uselessness of continuing this policy. In 311 B.C. a decree toler-ated the practice of the Christian religion, and thereafter the growth of the church was exceedingly rapid.

Nicene Creed   In 325 A.D. the first general council of the church met at the call of the Emperor Constantine at Nicea in Asia Minor. It was held to decide which set of religious teachings was to be considered the standard doctrines of the church. The two leading men in this council were Athanasius and Arius, both Alexandrian priests, who had come to think quite differently concerning the founder of the Christian religion. Arius argued that Christ was not equal to God, but Athanasius had a majority of the delegates, and the council decided that Arius was wrong. Accordingly, the assembly drew up a statement of their belief which is known as the Nicene creed. The Arian belief was declared to be heresy and orthodox believers were forbidden to accept it.

Notwithstanding this decree, the followers of Arius con-tinued to teach his doctrines for many years. They went as

missionaries to the Goths, the Germanic tribes who later entered the empire, and converted them to Arian Christianity.

The medieval church differed from the church of the first three centuries, not only by its persecution of those who disagreed with it, but also by the adoption of many of the ceremonies, feast-days, and other customs formerly used by the pagan religions. In the primitive church the organization was very simple. Whenever groups of people met for worship, one of their number was chosen to lead them in the service. He was called elder (Greek, presbyter). The word " presbyter " gradually became shortened into the more familiar word " priest." The distinction between pastor (shepherd) and laity (sheep) was at first scarcely distinguishable. The medieval church, on the other hand, adopted the administrative organization of the partnership emperors, and thereafter the line between clergy and laity became sharply defined. Those priests who officiated in important churches were looked up to by the other priests of the diocese in which they lived, and were called upon to act as overseers (Greek, episcopus). The early English writers translated this word by sound into their language as bishop. The bishops of the more important regions were called archbishops, or metropolitans, because they were usually bishops of the larger cities. We shall have occasion to study how certain metropolitans gained a supremacy over all the other clergy and assumed the titles of Pope and Patriarch.

50. Conditions in the later Empire. — One source of strength in the later empire was the carefully organized administrative system. By means of his subordinates throughout the empire, the emperor was able to keep in close touch with the needs and wishes of remote provinces and to act accordingly.

Greece at the height of her civilization was a land of cities. The same statement may be made of the Roman Empire. Hitherto our attention has been focused on Rome herself. Henceforth if we speak of conditions in Rome, the student must picture them as paralleled in thousands of miniature Romes

from Britain to the Euphrates River.   The population of Rome was about two millions; that of Alexandria was a half million or more; Pompeii had about thirty thousand.   Each city had its municipal government modelled closely upon that of Rome.   The

people were intensely interested in politics, as is proved by some of the scribblings on the walls of Pompeiian houses.   For example, " Primus and his household are working for the election of Sabinus as edile."   Under no previous great political power had cities exercised so much of home rule.   Indeed municipal government of our own day is largely based upon the Roman system.

(2) Public Works

ARCH OF CONSTANTINE

Showing the ruins of Colosseum in the background.

The great public works of the empire, such as the wonderful highways which connected Rome with every part of her empire, the temples and triumphal arches, the aqueducts for carrying water into the principal cities, the excellent fortifications which protected vulnerable places along the frontier, all these gave strength to the empire.

The Romans excelled in architecture and created a highly decorated form of arch known as the triumphal arch.   Among the better known arches erected by the emperors to commemorate their most famous victories are those of Trajan and Constantine.   The former stands in Trajan's Forum, the latter
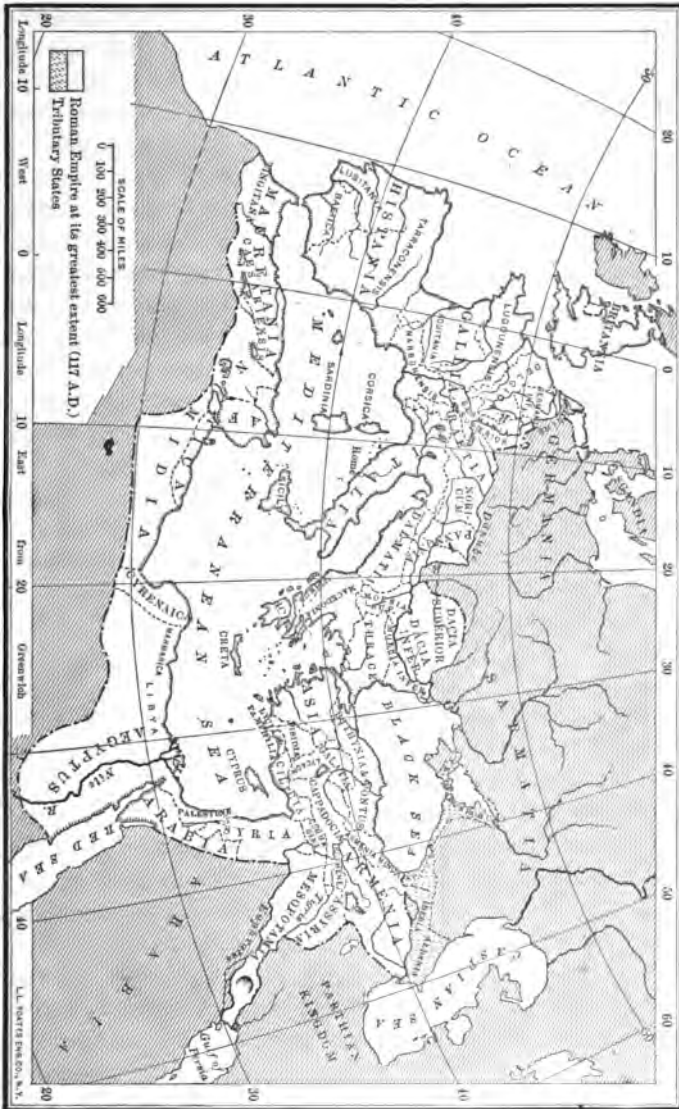
GREATEST EXTENT OF ROMAN POWER

within a stone's throw of the Colosseum. Both arches are richly sculptured and bear Latin inscriptions honoring their imperial builders.

(3) Commerce The merchants who carried their wares over these roads made the inhabitants of one part of the empire feel that they had things in common with the people of other provinces. This **(4) Roman** feeling of common interest was also a bond of union. Travelers **Law** along the roads were assured of justice by the excellent courts and laws of the empire in cases of difference of opinion or of oppression. It will be remembered that the apostle Paul rejoiced in the fact of his Roman citizenship and that he appealed from the procedure of the Syrian courts to the square dealing of **(5) Education** Rome.[1] Education is a failure if it does not promote true patriotism. Roman education was another source of strength. The educational system was both highly organized and well regarded, and there were both higher and lower institutions of learning. At Rome, as to-day at Washington or Albany, the study of law was aided by the opportunities given the student to observe the workings of the machinery of government. At Athens students had the inspiration of the beautiful works of art and of literature left by the Greeks. The successors of Alexander had built up a great scientific school at Alexandria in which medicine, astronomy, and mathematics were studied. In every large town the imperial government maintained grammar schools for the children of the better classes, in which they received about the equivalent of a high school education. Elementary instruction was given everywhere to all classes. The Roman empire retained most of its strength for five centuries, for the forces tending to unite it were stronger during that period than the forces tending to break it up. The elements of strength were the splendidly organized government, the magnificent system of public works, the province-uniting commerce, the just legal code, and the opportunities for education.

Yet with all these forces working to hold the empire together,

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[1] Acts xxv, the entire chapter, or more especially verses 10, 11.

other forces were tearing it apart. Economic distress, slavery, and profound changes in the character of the Roman people eventually broke the empire up into a number of smaller states and ushered in an epoch of general decline commonly spoken of as " The Dark Ages." Forces Tend-
ing to Destroy
the Empire

As the government became more highly organized it became more and more expensive to run it. The court became extravagant, while the salary list of public officials constantly increased; accordingly it was necessary to increase the amount of money collected by taxation. The maintenance of a large standing army involved taking away from agriculture the men needed to carry it on. As a result there was not enough food produced to feed the population of the empire, and prices rose alarmingly. The cost of living became so great that thousands of men were ruined financially and became practically slaves to their creditors. Because of the cost of living, no man in moderate circumstances could afford to rear large families of children. Hence the population of the empire declined to such an extent that there were not enough freemen in the empire to fill out the legions of the army or even to carry on absolutely necessary farm work. In consequence, agriculture declined, and regions once devoted to the raising of crops became desolate wilderness. The government attempted to increase the supply of soldiers and laborers by enlisting foreigners in the Roman legions and by bringing a large number of slaves into the empire to work on the farms or in the small shops left idle by the disappearing Roman workmen. Whenever and wherever slavery has been tried, it has proved to be destructive to society. It brings honest labor into disrepute, whereas each man and woman should learn the vital truth that all kinds of toil are honorable and that the laborer is worthy of one's highest respect. Slavery tends to limit the kinds of industry, since slave labor is not profitable in all trades. Furthermore a population made up to a large extent of foreign-born soldiers and slaves is not the best stuff out of which to build a patriotic people. The changed character

(1) Heavy Taxation

(2) Excessive Cost of Living

(3) Decline in Population

(4) Introduction of Foreigners

(5) Slavery

of the population, from a native-born and free people to an alien and servile stock, disrupted the Roman empire.

51. The Break-up of the Empire. — Constantine removed his capital from Rome to Byzantium, a city on the Bosphorus which he renamed after himself. Constantinople was better situated to control the commerce of the world than Rome;

CARCASSONNE

City on the Aude in southern France.   Fortified by the Visigoths, probably on foundations of Roman walls.

furthermore it was entirely free from the traditions of republican simplicity that hovered over the city on the seven hills. Soon after his death the disintegration of the empire became
apparent.   A German tribe called the Visigoths (West Goths) were driven into the empire by the raids of the Huns, a terrible race of Mongolian horsemen who began at this time to harass the empire.   They were at first disposed to be friendly to the Roman government, but when they were treated unfairly they took up

THE ROMAN EMPIRE

IN 395 A.D.

Included the parts of modern Europe, Asia and
Africa within the red lines.   North of the frontier
dwelt German or Slavic tribes

The Empire was divided into four prefectures,
these into dioceses, one of which is indicated within
black lines on the map of France and Western Ger-
many.   Each diocese was divided into provinces, of
which an example is indicated by the broken lines
within the diocese of Gaul.

EUROPE, NORTH AFRICA
AND WESTERN ASIA
ACCORDING TO PTOLEMY
A.D. 150

arms and inflicted a crushing defeat on the empire at the battle
of Adrianople (378 A.D.) in which the Emperor Valens was
killed. His successor managed to remain on fairly peaceful
terms with the Goths. After his death a young chieftain of
the Goths, named Alaric, led his people into Italy and captured
and sacked the city of Rome (410 A.D.). This was the first time

ALARIC ENTERING ROME

Rome had been menaced by a foreign army since the days of
Hannibal. Although Alaric died suddenly during a campaign
in southern Italy, his people were enabled to establish a perma-
nent home within the empire. They chose the Spanish penin-
sula and drove into Africa another German tribe, who there-
after established themselves on the site of ancient Carthage.
This tribe, the Vandals, later attacked and ravaged Rome in **The Vandals**
such a frightful manner that their name has ever since been a
term of reproach (455 A.D.).

It is fortunate for our civilization that these Germans were
able to build up some degree of power in the West by 451 A.D.;
for they were then called upon by the Roman empire to check
the advancing horde of Huns, who now threatened to destroy **The Huns**

civilization. Hideous in personal appearance, vile in their habits, demons in battle, the Huns cared nothing at all for the civilization of the empire, but spent their lives in the saddle and in battle. Such was the people that the combined Gothic and Roman armies hurled back at the battle of Chalons. Attila, the " Scourge of God," king of the Huns, turned aside into Italy and appeared before the city of Rome; but pestilence smote his camp and he was forced to retreat into Germany with the Roman forces hot in pursuit. Shortly after his death his forces suffered another terrible defeat and withdrew from Europe forever.

In the meantime Britain and other provinces had been conquered by various Germanic tribes. The twenty years following the Vandal sack of Rome, during which Attila appeared upon and vanished from the scene, were years of humiliation to the imperial city. Her masters were various Germanic generals, who amused themselves in setting up and dethroning puppet emperors. Finally, one of these generals, Odoaker, determined to rule in his own name. He accordingly deposed the then reigning puppet, a boy, who singularly enough bore the names of the city's founder and of the first emperor, Romulus Augustulus. The senate concurred in the deposition and petitioned the emperor at Constantinople to give to Odoaker the position of Patrician of the diocese of Italy. This the emperor refused to do (476 A.D.). Some have thought that this act of Odoaker's constituted the ending of the Roman empire in the West, but better authority holds that it was but one of a series of dramatic events connected with the change from a Roman to a German control of western Europe.

At last the emperor's opportunity to punish Odoaker came. A young Ostrogoth, named Theodoric had lived at the imperial court for many years and had won the emperor's favor. In order to avert an Ostrogothic attack on Constantinople, the emperor assented to the suggestion of Theodoric that he lead his people against Odoaker.

Chalons
451 A.D.

The So-called
Fall of Rome
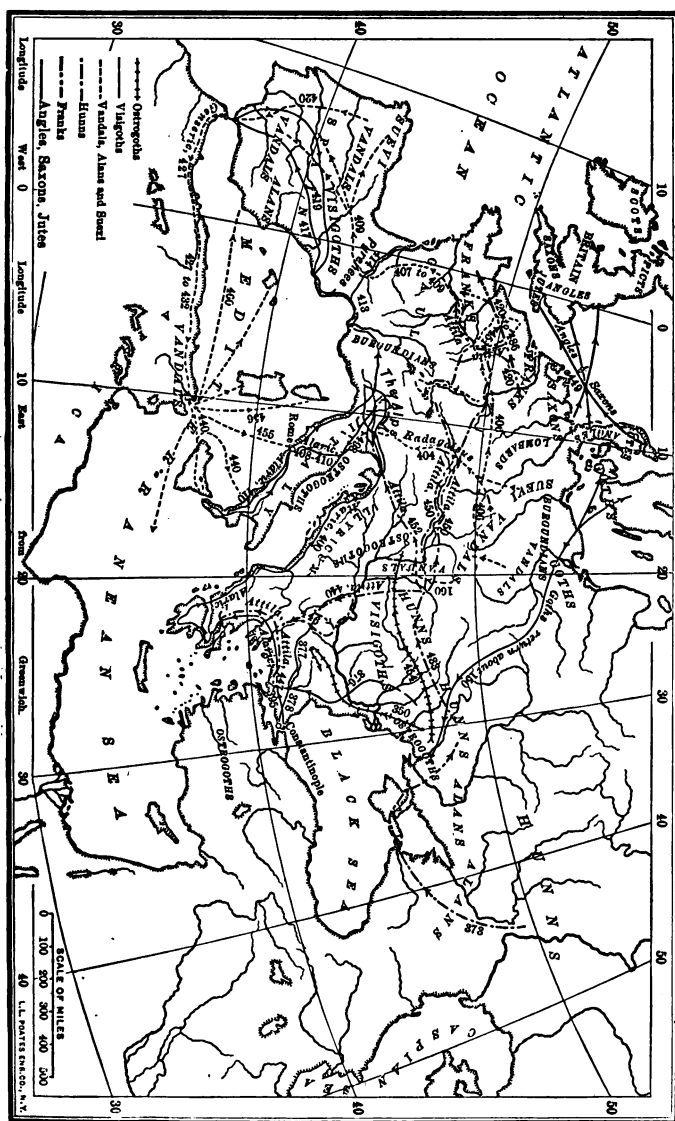
THE MAIN MIGRATIONS OF THE GERMANIC TRIBES, 150-600 A.D.

The
Ostro-Gothic
Kingdom in
Italy

Theodoric led his people into Italy, and after killing Odoaker, established another Germanic kingdom on Roman soil (493 A.D.). Theodoric ruled his Roman and Gothic subjects justly, and by a series of royal marriages with the Visigoths and other German tribes, established friendly relations throughout western Europe.

In his relations with the church Theodoric was not so happy, because he and his people were Arian Christians (see p. 133).

TOMB OF THEODORIC AT RAVENNA

This was constructed during his reign and used during the Middle Ages as the choir of a church. The roof is a single block of Istrian marble, 33 feet in diameter, weighing 300 tons.

Although he always posed as the faithful servant of the emperor, when the imperial government demanded that he suppress Arianism he vigorously defended his own sect. This induced him to commit very cruel deeds during the close of his reign. Yet on the whole his reign was beneficial. He patronized learning and literature, and fostered agriculture. At his death in 526, his daughter was unable to hold the throne

against other claimants, and Justinian, the Roman emperor, intervened. After twenty years of war that followed, the East Gothic kingdom in Italy was destroyed and the Gothic race in Italy practically exterminated.

52. The Byzantine Empire. — From this time the Roman empire, with its capital at Constantinople, is commonly spoken of as the Byzantine empire. Justinian was one of the greatest of the rulers of this empire. His great achievements were in

Work of Justinian

JUSTINIAN

A purely fanciful picture of a meeting of his Council.

constructive rather than in destructive works. During his reign silkworms were brought from the East and the manufacture of silk was begun by the Greco-Romans. Among the many public buildings constructed during his reign is the church dedicated to the Divine Wisdom (St. Sophia), now used as a Mohammedan mosque. The laws of the empire were codified by his lawyers in the form upon which almost all medieval law was based.

Although the successors of Justinian were by no means as able as he, yet the Byzantine empire withstood all attacks for centuries after Roman dominion had entirely ceased in

The Byzantine Empire in the Middle Ages

the West.   The contrast between the state of civilization in Constantinople with that of western Europe at the same time is marked.   This Byzantine civilization performed useful services for the rest of Europe.   First, it protected against Mohammedan invasions until the West was strong enough to resist them; second, it kept commerce alive until the Italian cities had become wealthy and powerful enough to engage in trade;   third, it pre-

SAINT SOPHIA

At Constantinople, erected by Justinian in 538 as a Christian church, converted by the Turks into a mosque.

served the learning and culture of the Greco-Romans for the use of later generations; and fourth, it Christianized and civilized the rest of eastern Europe.   It was less than fifty years before the discovery of America that the Turks were able to capture the city of Constantinople and put an end to this wonderful empire of the East.[1]

[1] "Travelers from western Europe were astonished to find such an enormous city, such wealth and such refinement.   In the West learning was confined to the clergy; safety in traveling could be secured only by

53. A Summary of the History of the Roman Empire. — In this survey of the Roman empire three things especially are to be fixed in the mind. The first is the importance of Roman organization and law. The second is the story of the growth and influence of the Christian church. The third is the remarkable way in which the Roman institutions were adopted by the barbarous Germans. The Romans so organized this world empire that each part felt itself as truly Roman as Rome herself, subject to all Roman laws and speaking a common language, the Latin. The Christian church quietly but surely grew into the form of the organization of the empire, and when the civil authorities became unable to administer Roman law, the church was ready and able to carry on the necessary governmental functions. It thus saved for us the culture both of Greece and Rome, which would otherwise have been destroyed by the barbarians. Coming under the influence of the church, the Germans learned to appreciate the benefits of much of the older civilization, which they modified and then adopted.

an armed force; and the homes of the most powerful nobles were rough castles, destitute of comfort and built mainly for defence. The kings of France and Germany were obliged to travel from one to another of their farms in order to secure the food necessary for their meals. Loathsome skin diseases were common, and there were no skilful doctors; pestilences and famine swept over the population from time to time. In Constantinople the travelers found lighted and paved streets, extensive public parks, hospitals, and homes for orphans. Order was maintained by a well-organized police force; theaters and circuses were maintained for the amusement of the populace. There were flourishing schools in which the scholar pursued not merely the elementary subjects taught in the West, but also those pertaining to law, medicine, and science. The nobles lived in magnificent buildings which far surpassed the palaces of the Western monarchs. The artisans were comfortably housed, and worked together in great factories, producing rich stuffs which were so rare and so highly prized in the West." (Munro, *A History of the Middle Ages.*)

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

(The following studies are based on Tucker's *Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul*, published by Macmillan. This is the best of the recent books dealing with the social life of the empire. Page references are given.)

Describe travel within the empire upon Roman roads, 16–25. Describe the office of emperor under the principate, 49–56. Draw a map of the Roman Forum and its neighborhood and locate the Rostra, the temple of Julius, the arch of Titus, the palaces of the Caesars, the arch of Constantine, and the Colosseum, 102–129. Describe the appearance, construction, lighting of Roman streets, 130–135, the water supply of Rome, 135–137. Describe the materials used for the construction of Roman houses, 137–138. Compare a Roman city block with those of our large cities, 139–142. Describe the town-house of the Roman, 143–168. Describe the social day of a Roman aristocrat: morning, 193–220; afternoon and dinner, 221–237. Describe the occupations of the middle and lower classes, 244–259. Describe the Roman theater and its amusements, 263–273. Describe the Circus Maximus and the events which were held there, 273–280. Describe the amphitheater and the spectacles there produced, 280–288. Describe Roman education, 319–335, the beginnings of Christianity, 381–387.

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THE GERMAN KINGDOMS AND THE PAPACY

The Lombard Conquest of Italy and its Effects
54. The Rise of the Papacy. — Although Justinian was chiefly a constructive statesman, his generals were successful in restoring to the control of the emperor the lands of the Ostrogoths in Italy and of the Vandals in Africa. The renewed control of Italy lasted only a short time, for another German tribe invaded the peninsula and gained the mastery. The newcomers, the Lombards, lacked a strong sense of nationality, and in consequence were unable to establish a united kingdom over the whole peninsula. Many small dukedoms grew up, and during the period of misrule that followed the bishop of Rome gained greater temporal power. The Lombard conquest was important; first, because it divided Italy into a number of small states; second, because it laid the foundations for the temporal rule of the pope. The three zones into which Italy was thenceforth divided were as follows: the northern, the valley of the Po, called Lombardy; the central, its capital at Rome, associated in men's minds with the bishop of that city; the southern dominated by the cities of Beneventum and Naples.

Reasons for the Growth of the Papal Power
During the troubled times of Lombard misrule the officials of the Roman church, particularly the bishop of Rome, were forced to accept many responsibilities of government. This was due to a number of circumstances. The civil authorities, representatives of a distant emperor at Constantinople, had little interest in the people of Italy and usually regarded them as lawful plunder. The church officers sympathized with their flocks, hence the people came more often to them for advice and leadership than to the government officials. This was
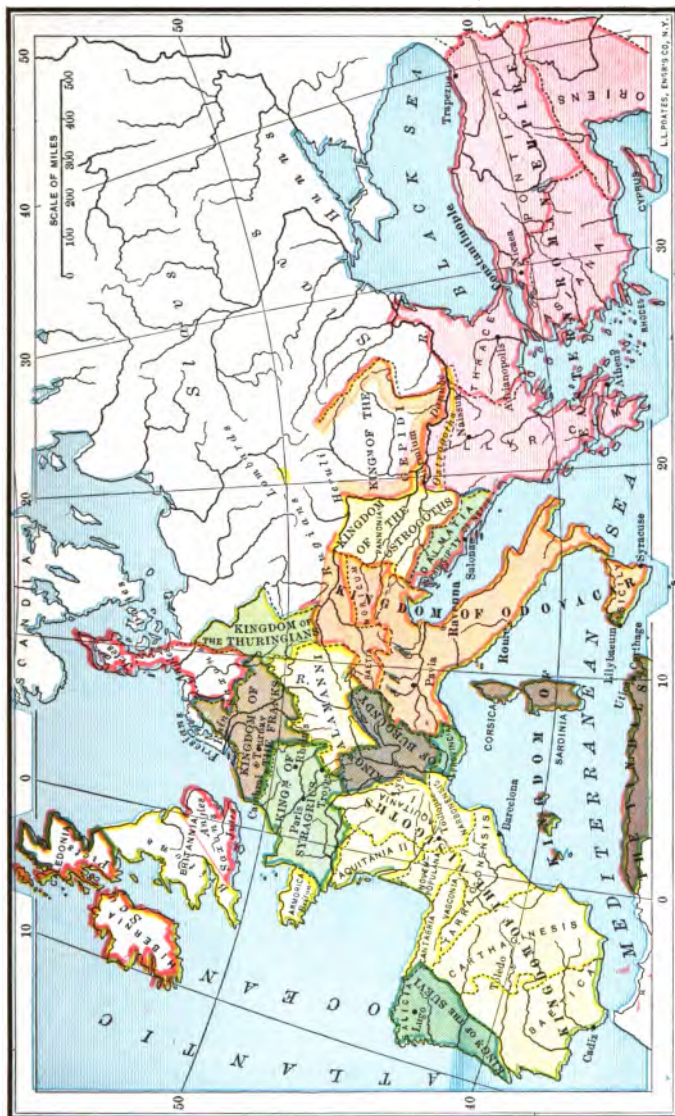
EUROPE IN THE HANDS OF THE GERMANIC TRIBES

natural because, with scarcely an exception, the officers of the church were exceedingly able men, none more justly respected than the bishops of Rome.

There were several bishops throughout the empire whose responsibilities were great and whose abilities were even greater. The bishop, or patriarch, of Constantinople and the bishop of Alexandria ruled great spiritual parishes, but the bishop of Rome came to be recognized as the head of bishops, the pope (from the Italian word for " father ") of all the church. Authorities give us the following reasons for the universal recognition of the claims of the pope to supremacy: the former prestige of the imperial city greatly increased the honor of the bishop of that city; the superior abilities of the Roman bishops won the the respect of the other bishops; the government of the empire, by several laws bearing on the subject, established and recognized the Roman bishop as head of the church; implicit confidence was given to the literal interpretation of a passage in the Bible in which Peter, whom Roman tradition made the first bishop of Rome, was declared to be the head of the church.[1] All other Roman bishops received, in what is known as the apostolic succession, the powers possessed by the first bishop.

While Italy had been ravaged by one German tribe after another the eastern emperors still kept up the fiction of rule over the peninsula, and were for a long time recognized as supreme by the popes. The Emperor Leo the Iconoclast (from the Greek, meaning " image-smasher "), so called because of his policy, did not approve of the use of images of saints in the churches and issued a decree forbidding their use and ordering the destruction of all images then standing in the churches. The pope considered the use of images perfectly legitimate and refused to carry out the decree of destruction in the region under his control. In consequence a quarrel between the emperor and the pope led to the separation of the eastern part of the Catholic Church from that in the West. The West acknowl-

[1] Matthew xvi. 13–20.

edged the supremacy of the pope; the East looked up to the patriarch of Constantinople, the emperor's city.[1] This schism in the church made the pope of Rome much stronger and was

Change in Dating Time an additional reason for the supremacy of the papacy in the West. A further result of this quarrel was the beginning of the present method of reckoning time; i.e., from the birth of Christ. Before the pope and emperor disagreed, the papal laws were dated according to the years of the reign of the ruling emperor. Seven hundred eighty-five years after the birth of Christ, Pope Hadrian dated a papal decree 781 A.D. (Anno Domini).[2]

The Ascetic Life 55. The Rise of Monasticism. — In all ages and among all peoples there have been men and women who have desired to live a life apart from the everyday affairs of the world. People call such persons hermits or ascetics and have attributed to them supernatural and prophetic powers. Asceticism, the desire to live a life in which the bodily desires are gratified only so far as necessary to support life, is even to-day not rare. We all know people who practise self-denial in various ways, and there is no doubt that self-denial is helpful in building up self-control. Among many races there have been individuals and groups of persons who believe that the practice of extreme self-denial, even to the extent of inflicting pain upon the body, is an act of worship acceptable to God. Closely related to this idea is that of the sacrifice of living creatures upon the altars of the gods, which played such an important part in the religion of the ancient peoples.

Reasons for Adopting a Monastic Life It is not strange that men and women became monks and nuns. In the middle ages they were induced to enter the monastic life for several reasons: religious fervor urged them to

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[1] The modern Greek Catholic Church, the successor of the Eastern church, differs in doctrine, form of worship, and organization from the Roman Catholic Church. This separation of the churches began at the time of the iconoclastic dispute, and has since greatly widened.

[2] It will be seen that the pope made an error of several years, and that according to this method of reckoning time Christ was born in the year 4 B.C.

devote their lives to the service of God, and this was thought
to mean that they must separate themselves from everything
pertaining to everyday life; the unsettled condition of society
rendered family life unhappy and the rearing of a family uncer-
tain, hence many men and women were glad to take the vows
never to marry, required on entering a monastic order; the
bitter struggle for a livelihood outside of the monasteries forced
behind their protecting walls many persons who were physically
unable to cope with outside conditions, yet who were well
adapted for the scholarly life of these orders.

During the first three centuries of the Christian era, at various
places in the empire, groups of devout persons of ascetic ten-
dencies associated together for the sake of protection in small
villages rudely constructed, but often fortified. As they had
many things in common they found it necessary to have a
definite agreement to govern them in their relations to each
other. The most important of these agreements is the set of
regulations drawn up about 530 A.D. for the monastery of Monte
Cassino by its abbot or head. These regulations, called in
honor of their framer the Benedictine rule, were adopted by the
majority of the monasteries of western Europe, and the monks
who obeyed them were called Benedictine monks. By this rule
the monks bound themselves to obedience, silence, humility,
poverty, chastity, and service.

Among the most important of all of these vows in its effects
on European civilization was that of service. The monks were
required to labor in the fields, thus teaching the more ignorant
peasants how to cultivate the best crops and also setting them
an example of honest toil at a time when almost all manual labor
was performed by slaves and therefore regarded as degrading
for freemen, as in the South before the Civil War. Those
whose physique would not permit hard physical work copied
laboriously for several hours each day in the scriptorium or
writing room of the monastery. As all books had to be made
by hand, the work of getting out a book was an extremely slow

process. Had it not been for these patient workers, much of the literature of ancient times would have been lost. Quaint writers were some of these old monks, and many books have come down to us, beautiful in lettering and gorgeous with colored illuminations, as the pictures and colored initial letters are called. Other monks gathered around them classes of young men and in this manner kept the germs of education alive through a period of great ignorance and violence. When travel was dangerous and accommodations for the traveler few, the monasteries served as hotels and hospitals for the weary or injured wayfarers. Indeed the two words, " hotel, " and " hospital," are of common origin, as is shown in the word " hospitality." The monasteries thus served to promote commerce by furnishing merchants and traders with places of refuge and refreshment. The greatest work of the monks, however, was that of mission work. It is to Roman Catholic monks of western Europe that credit must be given for Christianizing and then civilizing the German tribes, even as due praise must be awarded to the Greek Catholic Church for the civilizing of the Slavic race of Russia and the rest of eastern Europe.

Importance of the Work of the Monks The contributions of the monastic orders to literature, education, industry, commerce, religion, and general culture are of utmost importance.

Clovis **56. The Frankish Kingdom.** — While Theodoric the East Goth was winning Italy for his kingdom, Clovis, king of the Franks, wrested all northwestern France from the Roman empire. The Franks had in earlier times occupied the country of modern Holland. Clovis forced the Visigoths to retreat from the lands between the Loire and the Garonne, and defeated another German tribe, the Alemanni, in a battle near Strasburg. Other rival Frankish chieftains were either murdered or forced to acknowledge his supremacy. He died in 511 A.D., feared by his enemies and acknowledged king of that part of the empire. Strangely enough he appears in the annals of the early monkish chroniclers as the saintliest of kings, although a man of violent

life; yet it must be remembered that he was liberal to the church. Probably the good bishop, Gregory of Tours, seeing the many good characteristics of the man, chose to be blind to the too apparent evil traits of his character. The chief importance of the work of Clovis is that he founded the first permanent German state on the soil of the old empire, the Franks having been the ruling race in that region ever since, although the form of government and the dynasty of rulers have frequently changed.

The work of extending Frankish rule went on during the next half century, until all France, except Brittany, acknowledged the control of one of the Frankish kingdoms; for after the death of Clovis his possessions had fallen apart into Neustria, the country of the West Franks, Austrasia, that of the East Franks, and in the southeast, Burgundy. His successors were less able men and are nicknamed *rois fainéants* (do-nothing kings). They left the affairs of taste more and more to their subordinates and gave themselves up to idle, often evil lives. *The "Do-nothing Kings"*

The principal officer of the king's household was called the mayor of the palace. He had charge of the affairs of the kingdom and led the army in the king's name. The mayors were more able than their sovereigns and frequently ignored the ruler. Pepin of Heristal was mayor of the palace for the king of Austrasia, and forced the kings of Neustria and Burgundy to make him their principal minister also. A similar arrangement to-day would prevail if the prime minister of England were to compel the French government to make him prime minister of France also, and the German government to make him chancellor of the empire. Such an arrangement made the mayor of the palace a more important figure than the kings and furthered a union between the countries. Pepin transmitted his triple office to his son Charles, who was called "The Hammer" because of his great victory over the invading Mohammedans at the battle of Tours in 732 A.D. *The Mayors of the Palace* *Pepin of Heristal* *Charles Martel (The Hammer)*

Shortly after the death of Charles Martel, his older son,

Pepin, King of the Franks Pepin "the Short" became sole mayor of the palace. After consultation with the pope, with his approval and that of the Frankish people, Pepin deposed the *fainéant* king then on the throne and himself assumed the crown of the Franks. This was a recognition of the merit of his family, a tribute to the statesmanship of his father, and an acknowledgment of his own superiority over the line of Clovis. The participation of the pope in his accession to the throne was a reintroduction of the close relation which had existed between church and state in ancient Hebrew history, when the king was regarded as the "Lord's anointed." This idea was to reach its flower in the theory of the divine right of Kings.[1] (See p. 344.)

Origin of the States of the Church or Papal States The pope felt the need for a closer relation between the church and the rising family of Frankish princes. In addition to the religious sentiment which unquestionably prompted his action, the ruler of the church had material motives which made the alliance valuable. It was at this time that the pope was having his controversy with the emperor, and nearer home the Lombard rulers of the Po valley were planning an invasion of his territory. When the most ambitious of the Lombard kings, desirous of founding a new German kingdom to take in all the peninsula, invaded the papal lands, Pope Stephen commanded Pepin to come to his aid. This act was of momentous importance. It further widened the breach between the emperor and the pope and put an end to a project for the unification of Italy.[2] Pepin entered Italy at the head of a large army, conquered the Lombard king, and compelled

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[1] Dr. Robinson points out the significance of papal participation in the selection of a Frankish ruler as follows: "The kings of the Germans up to this time had been military leaders, selected, or holding their office, by the will of the people, or at least of the aristocracy. Their rule had no divine sanction, but only that of general acquiescence backed up by sufficient skill and popularity to frustrate the efforts of rivals. By anointing Pippin in accordance with ancient Jewish custom, first by Boniface and then by the pope himself, 'a German chieftain was,' as Gibbon expresses it, 'transformed into the Lord's anointed.'"

[2] The papacy remained a barrier to the unification of Italy until 1870.

him to surrender the central zone to the pope. This region, which the Lombards had previously taken from the viceroy of the Byzantine empire, Pepin granted to the pope, and thus

MAP NO. 6.

ITALY IN 814.

Territory ruled by the Pope before Pepin's day...

Territory gained by help of Pepin and Charlemagne. --

Boundary of Charlemagne's Empire. ---- ·——·——·——

East Roman Empire. ----

SORMAY & CO., N.Y.

Longitude 12° East   from   Greenwich   10°
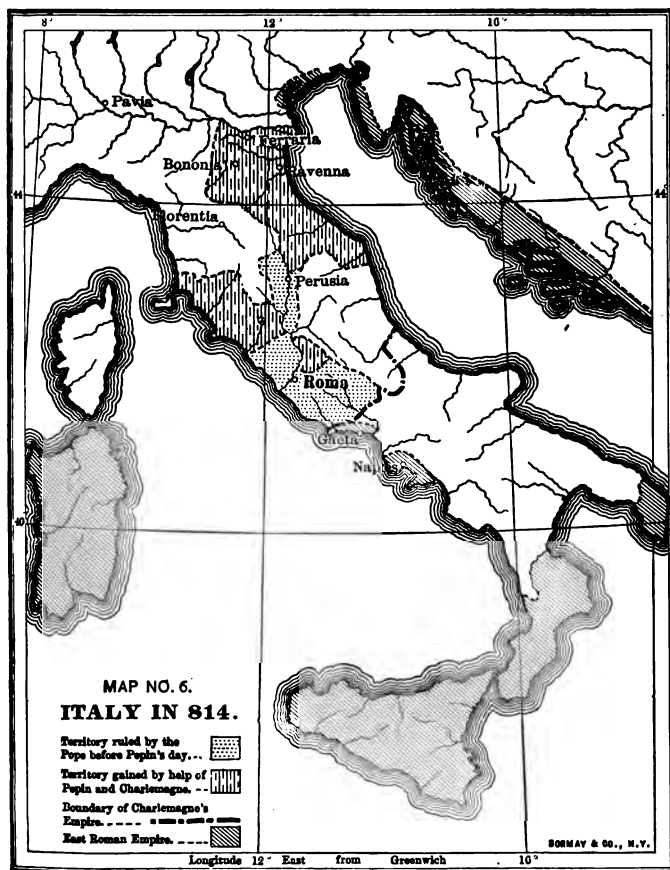
formed the territory known for over a thousand years as the papal states or states of the church. Pepin's reign is impor- tant because of the papal recognition of his position and be-

cause the temporal authority of the pope was recognized by a civil ruler.

Mohammed   **57. The Rise of Islam.** — In the deserts of Arabia a wild, heroic people had existed from the earliest days of recorded ·
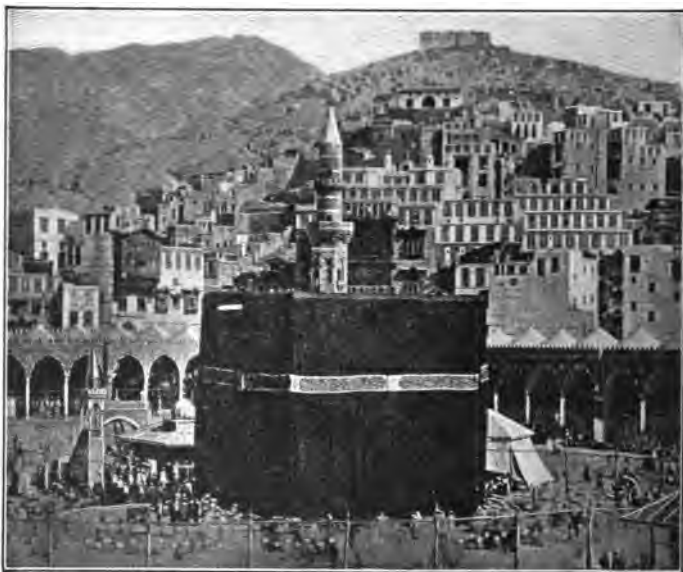
THE KAABA

Located at Mecca.   The chief sanctuary of Islam.   First erected, according to the legend, by Abraham and Ishmael.   In its walls is set the sacred black stone.   This was broken by fire in 683, but its parts were held together in a setting of silver.   The Kaaba has been reconstructed several times since Mohammed's day.   The building is covered with a heavy black silk damask — the sacred carpet — which is replaced by a new one each year.

history.   They had been the conquerors of the proudest empires of ancient times and had never bowed the knee to Rome. The religion of the Arabs was similar to that of the Hebrews, monotheistic, although some idolatrous practices had been introduced during the first few centuries of the Christian

era. At Mecca, the seat of their supreme god, there was born in the year 570 A.D. a peculiar and sickly child. Of noble descent, but poor, he adopted the occupation of stock-raiser, and was fortunate enough to win the heart of his employer, a wealthy widow. After his marriage he had abundant means to adopt another mode of life. About the age of forty the disease with which he had always been fighting seems to have gained the upper hand, for he then announced that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him in a dream. He claimed that he was ordered to preach against the idolatry which had entered into the Arab religion and to proclaim as the true doctrine that there is but one God and that he, Mohammed, was his prophet.[1] He was sincere in his delusions, for within a quarter of a century he had converted all of his countrymen. Within a century after his death his followers outnumbered the Christians.

Mohammed was at first received with scorn and hostility **The Hegira** by the Arab chieftains. In the year 622 A.D. he was forced to flee for his life from Mecca to Medina, where he made many friends and converts to his views. This flight, called the Hegira by his followers, took place in the year 1 of the Mohammedan's calendar, for his converts reckon time after that event, as do Christians from the birth of Christ. Mohammed was unable to read or write, but was, nevertheless, familiar with the best literature of the Semitic races, including the Bible. He dictated to his disciples many rules of conduct, **The Koran** forms for prayers, and short anecdotes of his life and work, which have been collected into a volume called the Koran, the sacred book of the faith. His religion is called Islam, **Islam** which means submission to God's will; for he taught that
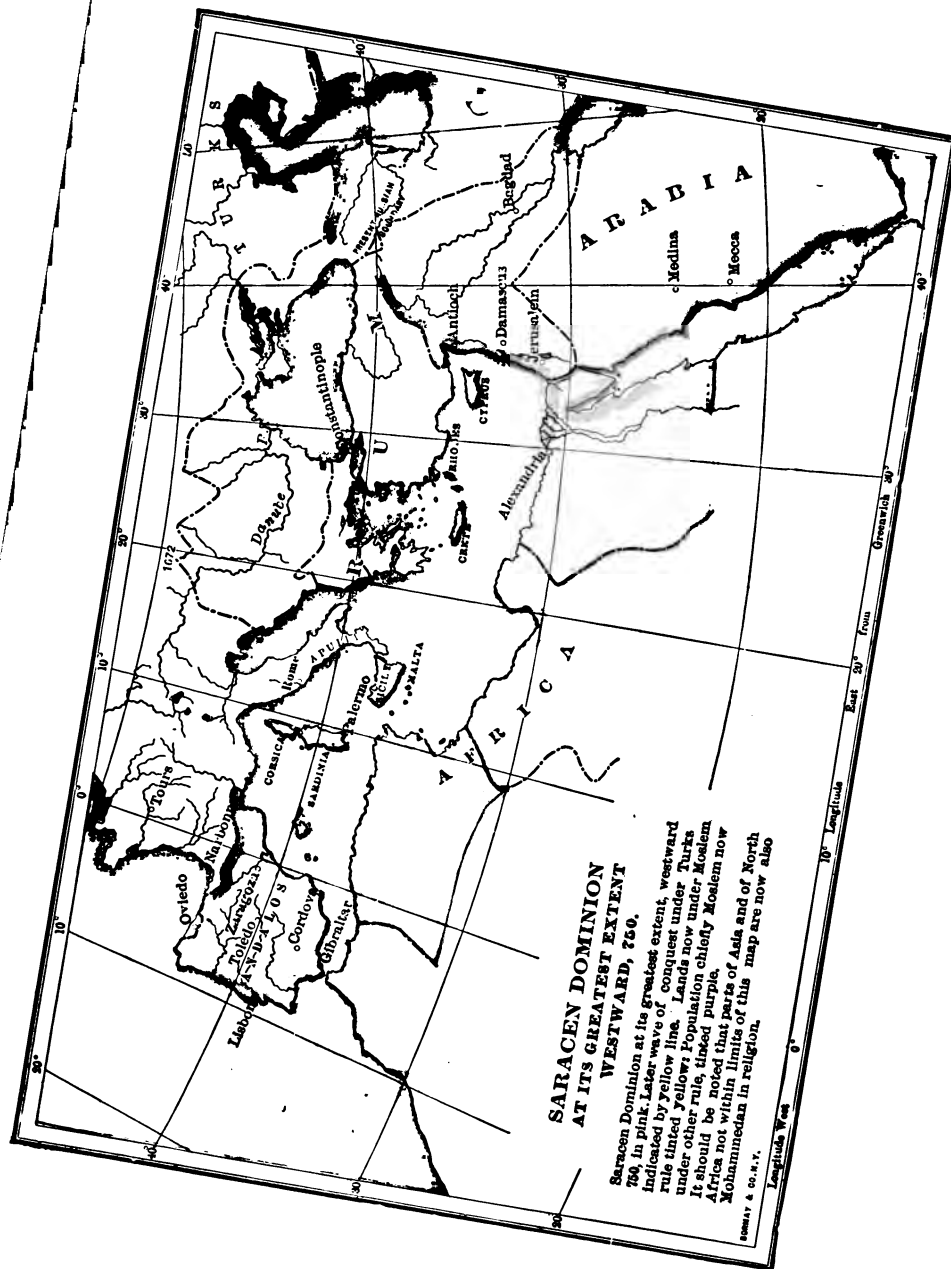
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[1] His symptoms were those of epilepsy or of a mild form of delusionary insanity. Many famous characters of history by the fervor of their convictions and the singular purity and nobleness of their lives have gained wonderful fame, while at the same time they have shown the symptoms of serious mental disorder, such as the belief in the delusions which constantly hovered over them.

Kismet, or fate, rules everything. Its rules of conduct are few and simple. A Mohammedan must pray five times daily with his face toward the holy city, and make at least one pilgrimage thither during his life. He must give a tenth of his wealth to the poor, abstain from all alcoholic drinks, fast at certain seasons of the year, and do nothing dishonorable. Mohammed taught that there is in store for true believers a future life of the utmost physical happiness, such as feasting and the like, but the wicked and the unbelievers are to suffer torments in hell. War against unbelievers is sacred and obligatory upon true Mohammedans, and since Allah is with his followers, those who fall in battle will go direct to Paradise.

After his death his work was carried on by men called kalifs, **Growth of Mohammedan Power** who possessed greater power throughout the Mohammedan world than that of the pope in Christendom. The kalifs gave an unbelieving people its choice of accepting the faith of Islam, of paying a heavy tribute, or of death. To most of the Eastern people it is probable that Islam seemed merely another Christian heresy, especially as Mohammed taught that Christ is indeed a great prophet. Within a century the new faith had spread from Persia to Spain, and more than two hundred million men to-day accept as true gospel the teachings of the fanatical Arab. Wherever Islam has spread it has at first produced vigorous results which seemed good, but " it seems gradually to sap the energy of the nations which adopt it, and leads, after a few generations of greatness, to a stagnation and decay, which the Moslem in his self-satisfied bigotry is too blind to perceive. Islam is a good religion to die by — but not a good religion to live by." (Oman, " The Dark Ages.")

The rapid growth of the Mohammedan empire after the death of its founder was facilitated in the East by the exhaustion of the eastern Roman empire, which was resting after conquering a terrible opponent. This was a revived Persian kingdom, which had conquered Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, under the great Persian Chosroes. He who had or-

SARACEN DOMINION
AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT
WESTWARD, 750.

Saracen Dominion at its greatest extent, westward
750, in pink. Later wave of conquest under Turks
indicated by yellow line. Lands now under Turks
rule tinted yellow; Population chiefly Moslem
under other rule, tinted purple.
It should be noted that parts of Asia and of North
Africa not within limits of this map are now also
Mohammedan in religion.

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Longitude West

dered the emperor of Constantinople to come as a suppliant
to him was commanded by Mohammed to recognize Islam,
and it can be imagined with what scorn he treated this order.
Heraclius, the Byzantine ruler, at last defeated Chosroes and
restored the lost provinces to the empire of the East.   Both
the Byzantine and Persian empires were so weakened that
they were for twenty years at the mercy of the kalifs.   The
Mohammedans gained all the north coast of Africa and estab-
lished a Moorish state in the Spanish peninsula, after having
overcome the Gothic kingdom there.   In 732 A.D. the Moors   Tours or
invaded southern France, but were met by Charles Martel   Poitiers
between Tours and Poitiers and defeated with great loss.
This victory of the Franks put an end for a time to the in-
roads of the Moors, and by some authorities is considered to
have saved western Europe from becoming Mohammedan in
civilization.[1]

58. Charlemagne's Life and Work. — Charles, the oldest   Personal
son of Pepin, afterward called Charlemagne or Carolus Magnus   Appearance
(Charles the Great), became ruler of the Franks in 768.   He   and Traits
was tall, of good build, with fair hair and skin and blue eyes,
a typical German.   He was strong in body and mind and de-
lighted in manly sports of all kinds, excelling in swimming
and riding.   " He wore the dress of his native country; next
his body a linen shirt and linen drawers; then a tunic with a
silken border, and stockings.   He bound his legs with garters
(like the puttees of the present day) and wore shoes on his
feet.   In the winter he protected his shoulders and chest with
a vest made of the skins of otters and sable.   He wore a blue
cloak and was always girt with his sword, the hilt and belt
being of gold and silver.   Sometimes he wore a jewelled sword,
but only on great festivals or when receiving foreign ambas-
sadors.   On festivals he was clad in a garment woven with gold
and shoes studded with jewels, his cloak fastened with a golden

[1] Others hold that this was merely a temporary setback to the Moham-
medans, and that its importance has been greatly overestimated.

clasp, and wearing a crown of gold set with precious stones. At other times his dress differed little from that of a 'private person.'"   Charlemagne was fond of listening to music and to reading and was fairly well educated, according to the standards of the time, as he was able to speak Latin and to understand some Greek, in addition to a good knowledge of his own tongue.[1]

Romance has made of him a very Alexander who swept over Europe during the half century of his reign, leading a myriad lances, conquering and civilizing countless hordes of barbarians. Had he possessed half the generalship attributed to him by these medieval legends, he would have forced the Mohammedans out of Europe and have planted his banners upon

CHARLEMAGNE

the walls of Constantinople. During his reign the Frankish dominions were increased, partly by his own efforts and partly as a result of the work of the counts of the marches, officers whom he put in charge of the border provinces. Among the most important conquests of his reign was the overthrow of the heathen Saxons, who occupied the north-central part of Germany. The religion of this people was of the gloomiest sort of battle worship, and savage and cruel customs prevailed. After nine campaigns, lasting for thirty years in all, the foundation for modern Germany was laid in the forests

[1] He was never able to learn to write, although he kept writing materials near him at all times, even under his pillow, so that he could practise at every spare moment.

along the Elbe River. Towns sprang up, monasteries were built; everywhere the zealous Benedictines went to and fro, spreading the civilization of the Romans and Franks. Charlemagne tried to force the Moors out of Spain, but was unable to drive them permanently further south than the river Ebro.[1] Another important campaign of Charlemagne was undertaken against a Lombard king who had seized cities in northern Italy and thus was threatening the supremacy of the pope. As his predecessor had appealed to Pepin, so this pope appealed for aid to Charlemagne, and reminded him of the friendly relations which had existed between the papacy and his family. Charlemagne responded by invading Lombardy with a large army, by capturing Pavia, its capital and by forcing the Lombard king to abdicate in his favor. Thenceforth Charlemagne was king of the Lombards as well as of the Franks. By conquering the Bavarians, who occupied the lands between his Saxon conquests and Lombardy, he rounded out his empire.

As a statesman Charlemagne was preëminent. This is *Statesmanship* shown in two ways. He secured the advantage of having some coöperation of the people with himself in the affairs of government, and he won a greater loyalty to his rule by preserving the local customs of the people he conquered. In the spring of each year an assembly, called the Mayfield, composed of the principal landowners and clergymen of the realm, met at the call of the king and talked over the capitularies or laws proposed by him. At an autumn meeting of the chief officials, affairs of administration were discussed. The king was assisted by a permanent council of important officers, among whom were the high almoner, a representative of the church in its relations with the government; the chancellor, who drew up in the form of capitularies the king's ideas in

Government of the Franks

Assemblies and Important Officials

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[1] The slaughter of a part of his army in the pass of Roncevalles by the fierce Basques of the Pyrenees furnished the suggestion for the *Song of Roland*, one of the greatest medieval epics.

regard to needed legislation; the chamberlain, the chief officer of the court, who arranged all public ceremonials; and the count of the palace, who had chief control over the administration of justice.

Administrative System   Charlemagne gained the loyalty of the people of several conquered provinces by permitting them to retain their old customs and laws. In the cases of Brittany and the Spanish province he appointed the defeated native chief to rule as the king's representative under the title of duke. Border provinces, called marches, were ruled by grafs or counts. The missi dominici were pairs of superintendents, sent by the king from county to county to examine into the acts and finances of the large landholders. Thus Charlemagne kept himself well informed about his great vassals. He was in no danger of being deceived by misleading reports from a pair of missi acting in collusion with a landholder, because, as he always sent a clergyman and a layman out on such a tour, they never agreed sufficiently to be able to deceive him.

Patronage of Learning   As a promoter of learning Charlemagne ranks high. In the turmoil of barbarian invasion and bloody kingdom-building which had filled the centuries immediately preceding his reign, education had been sadly neglected except in a few monasteries. Even the churchmen had become careless of their learning, as is shown by the poorly constructed letters written by prominent clerics of the eighth century. In 789 A.D. Charlemagne issued an order to the clergymen to open schools for the education of the young men of the kingdom. He set an example to his people by opening a school within his own palace for the education of his sons and those of the Frankish nobility, and called to its head the famous Englishman named Alcuin. Other famous professors in this school were Paul the Deacon, a Lombard clergyman whose history of the Lombard people is extremely valuable source material, and Eginhard, from whose biography of Charlemagne the quotation on page 161 is taken.

The most important event in the life of Charlemagne was the reëstablishment of the Roman empire in the West. Eginhard relates that Charlemagne had gone down into Italy to hear charges against the pope. " On his arrival Pope Leo

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (Aachen)

The round church at the left was built by Charlemagne as a palace chapel. In the fourteenth century a Gothic choir was added to transform the whole into a cathedral.

went to meet him. He received the pope reverently and dined with him. On the birthday of our Lord (December 25, 800) the king went to mass at St. Peter's (the pope's own church in Rome). As he knelt in prayer before the altar, Pope Leo set a crown upon his head, while all the Roman people shouted, ' Long life and victory to the great and pacific emperor of the Romans! ' After this he was called emperor and Augustus."

The pope's reasons for thus restoring the old Western empire were threefold: sincere regard for Charlemagne and gratitude toward him for his friendly attitude; knowledge that he was the actual ruler of nearly all of western Europe and therefore merited the imperial title; hatred for the iconoclastic Eastern rulers provoking the wish to deprive them of even the semblance of authority in the Italian peninsula.
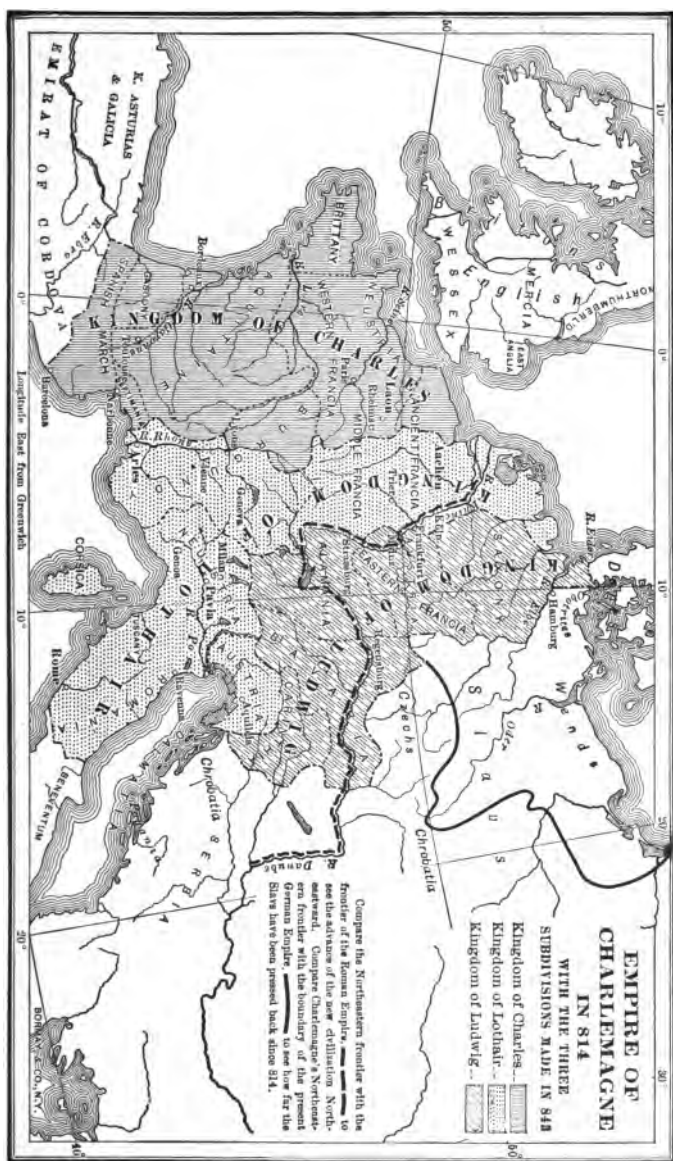
Differences between Charlemagne's Empire and the Old Roman Empire   Although Charlemagne was called emperor of the Romans, it is important to note differences between his empire and the older one. His was essentially German in language and institutions and one in which church and state were coördinate, while the religion was Christian. The empire of Augustus was Roman in language and institutions and one in which the church, which was pagan, was subordinate to the state.

Weakness of Louis the Pious   **59. The Decline of Charlemagne's Empire.** — Notwithstanding the strongly organized system of government, the revival of interest in general culture, and the spread of Christianity with its tendencies toward order, the empire of Charlemagne disintegrated shortly after his reign. Even before his death he had assigned large parts of his empire to his three sons, of whom Louis the Pious was the only one left to succeed him. Louis's weak reign sowed seeds of future disaster in the Frankish kingdom, and, forced to abdicate by his rebellious sons, he took refuge in a monastery. To these sons we must look for the beginnings of at least two of the modern states of Europe. Lothair, who held the imperial title, was forced by his brothers, Charles and Louis the German, to **842 A.D.**   share his domain with them. The agreement binding Charles and Louis to mutual offence and defence against Lothair is known as the Strasburg Oath and is important because it gives the first written examples of the medieval French and German languages. Louis the German took his oath in French before the Frankish soldiers of Charles, while Charles used German for a like reason; namely, that the soldiers might understand him.

EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE IN 814 WITH THE THREE SUBDIVISIONS MADE IN 843

Kingdom of Charles—
Kingdom of Lothair—
Kingdom of Ludwig—

Compare the Northeastern frontier with the frontier of the Roman Empire, to see the advance of the new civilization Northeastward. Compare Charlemagne's Northeastern frontier with the boundary of the present German Empire, to see how far the Slavs have been pressed back since 814.

Early French
Pro Deo   amur /at   pro   christian   poblo   et   nostros commun   salvament

Early German
In Goddes   minna   ind in these   christianes   folches   ind   unser bedhero   gealtinisi

Translation
" For´Gcd's   love   and for this   Christian   people   and   for our mutual   salvation

I will henceforth from this day as far as God endows me with knowledge
and ability treat my brother as one should rightly treat a brother provid-
ing that he does likewise to me; and with Lothair will I go into no treaty
that may work harm to this my brother." The early French was little
different from Latin, but both languages differed considerably from their
modern forms.

A year later they forced Lothair to agree, in the famous
Treaty of Verdun, to the division of the empire into three
portions: Charles received the western land, which was later
called France; Louis gained the lands east of the Rhine, in-
cluding Saxony and Bavaria, the beginnings of Germany; and
Lothair retained the title of emperor and the sovereignty
over a kingdom with no geographical unity extending from
the North Sea to the southern part of Italy, between the pos-

sessions of his brothers. A second treaty, made at Mersen,
Holland, was entered into by Louis and Charles after the death
of Lothair, in 870. They redivided between them Lothair's king-
dom north of the Alps, leaving Italy and the empty imperial
title to Lothair's son. This division of Charlemagne's empire
is of the utmost importance because it marks the beginnings
of modern France, Germany, and Italy as geographical facts.
The middle kingdom has been a cause of strife between France
and Germany for over a thousand years. Among the wars
in which these nations have contested the ownership of por-
tions of Lothair's kingdom was the Franco-Prussian War of
1870, after which Prussia formed the German empire and an-
nexed Lorraine. (Lothair's kingdom expressed in Latin is
Lothairi regnum, which became successively shortened to
Lotharingia and Lorraine.) One of the indirect causes of the
European War begun in 1914 was the desire of France to re-
gain this lost province.

The reasons for the break-up of Charlemagne's empire were; first, the weakness of Charlemagne's successors and their inability to hold together the wide extent of territory; second, invasions by the Northmen, the sea robbers who came from the shores of Denmark and the Scandinavian peninsula. At first they ravaged the coasts and such inland districts as they could reach by rowing up navigable rivers, but after a time a second stage of invasion began with the settlement of bands of these rude folk in districts granted to or conquered by them. They
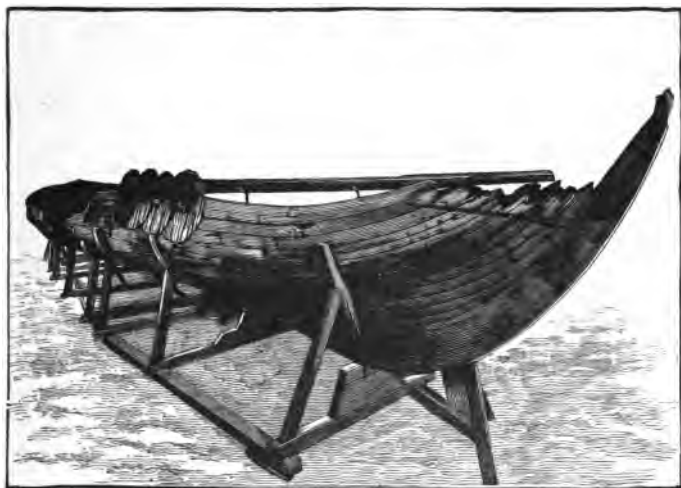
REMAINS OF A VIKING SHIP

were called vikings or sea-kings, and in their long, swiftly rowed, dragon-prowed ships they penetrated to coasts far remote from their native shores. Such were Leif Ericson, the reputed discoverer of Vinland or North America; Rollo or Rolf, the Ganger or Wanderer, the founder of the duchy of Normandy in northern France; Ruric, who penetrated Russia by the roundabout route of the Mediterranean and Black seas and established there a kingdom which was the germ of modern Russia; and Robert Guiscard, a Northman or Norman, who

formed an alliance with a pope and received the crown of Sicily.

(3) Growth of Power of Great Vassals: Feudalism

A third reason for the weakness of the empire was the gradual growth of the power of the rulers of subordinate parts of the empire until these great vassals, or landholders, could not be controlled by the emperor. An instance of this was the ruthless seizure of part of the emperor's own lands in the Treaty of Mersen.

Origin of Feudal Relations

60. Feudalism. — When the Germans invaded the Roman empire, they brought with them the comitatus, or companion custom, which in some respects resembled a custom, the benefice, which had grown up during the days of stress in the decline of the Western empire. The benefice was the custom of granting an estate to a monastery in return for the protection against attack afforded the owner by the monastery. The former owner continued to live on the estate and was entitled to the usufruct, products of the soil, in return for a nominal rent paid the monastery. The gradual combination of the comitatus and benefice as parts of one system of landholding and of mutual obligations between great and small landholders

Feudal Terms

produced the feudal system. The German chieftains granted conquered lands to their companions, who enjoyed the usufruct in return for a small feudal due or rent. This process is known as infeudation, and such land, called feudalized land, or a fief, became the central institution of feudalism. The companions were called vassals, and the grantor of the land the lord, or suzerain. The vassals frequently subdivided, or subinfeudated, their land. These subvassals owed allegiance to their immediate superiors only: hence, in time of war between a vassal and his suzerain, if the other vassals wished to remain neutral, the suzerain had no power to call to his defence the subvassals of the neutral vassals. A ruler was able to command the service only of those people who had taken an oath of allegiance to himself personally. This difficulty was avoided in England after the taking of the Salisbury Oath, (see p. 214) but on the continent it often proved serious.

Sometimes a free landowner, fearing some neighboring lord, commended himself and his lands to the protection of a friendly and powerful lord of his neighborhood. To do this he gave the land to the great noble and received it back from him as a fief. This process was called commendation. Feudalism grew in the three ways just described; that is, by infeudation, subinfeudation, and commendation.

A vassal owed certain things to his lord. He must do him homage, a ceremony indicating his obedience, performed by kneeling before his lord, his hands within those of his lord; he must obey his lord's summons to attend his court to give him counsel and aid; he must place his arms at the command of the lord in war; and he must render financial aid when called upon to do so. The three principal causes for financial aid, called the three great aids, were for the purpose of meeting the expenses attendant upon the knighting of the lord's son, for the eldest daughter's dowry, or for the lord's ransom if captured by the enemy. On the other hand the lord owed many things to the vassal. He owed him protection in war and justice in peace; the widows and orphans of his vassals were his wards. The vassal looked to the lord for the maintenance of law and order and the security of property. *Mutual Obligations of Lord and Vassal*

From each of several points of view feudalism was one of the most important institutions of the middle ages. In the first place, feudalism was the basis for all military organization. The primary duty of a vassal to his lord was military service, but he served only for a limited period. The feudal army was composed chiefly of cavalry, of which each horseman, or knight, was as formidable for those days as are the huge, armored motorcars used in modern warfare. The knight was clad in a leather tunic which was covered with metal rings, and an iron hat with a plate which protected the nose. Toward the close of the middle ages the armor of the knight became more elaborate. He was clad in a complete suit of iron, sometimes of more precious metals, which weighed more than fifty pounds. His *Importance of Feudalism*

horse also was protected by a covering of metal. One knight armed with shield, battle-ax, heavy sword, or lance, could break through a line of infantry with ease.

Secondly, feudalism provided for a definite system for the collection of money for governmental purposes. The central governments in feudal times were weak. Had it not been for the system of aids and other payments of money or personal service, the governments could not have endured.

In the third place, feudalism furnished practically the only bond of union in the disordered states of western Europe. The great feudal lords were the administrators of government. They held courts, issued laws, punished crime, and coined money; in short, performed those administrative functions undertaken by the modern state.

In the fourth place, feudalism exerted a profound social influence. It was, with the church, the all-powerful moulder of the customs of medieval folk. It imposed upon them two great ideals: first, that of reciprocal service and duty; second, the ideal of chivalry or knighthood, with its high standard of personal honor and respect for womanhood.

61. Summary of the German Kingdoms and the Papacy. — During the troubled time of Lombard misrule the officers of the Christian church were the chief factors which kept civilization from being destroyed by barbarism. Aided by the monastic spirit, which prompted to deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice, the fathers of the church taught the barbarians to govern themselves and to value law and order. A theological dispute between the Roman emperor and the bishop of Rome caused a breach between the church of the East and the church of the West and further strengthened the pope in his position as supreme authority in the Western church. In the East an Arab fanatic preached a new religion which in less than a century had conquered western Asia and northern Africa. Under the eyes of the popes there developed in western Europe a strong Frankish kingdom which thrust back the wave of

Mohammedan invasion and thus prevented Europe from becoming oriental in its later civilization. Pepin punished the Lombards for attacking papal territory and founded the states of the church. His son, Charlemagne, laid the foundations of three modern European states and by his patronage of edution and of the church set up a higher standard of culture. After his death his dominions were divided. The story of how each became a great nation is the history of modern Europe.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on outline maps of Europe the Mohammedan empire at its widest extent; locate Mecca, Medina, Jerusalem, Cairo, Alexandria, Damascus, Byzantium, Granada, Poitiers (Tours). Show on outline map of western Europe the empire of Charlemagne; locate Aix, Strasburg, Rome, Ravenna, Verdun, Mersen, the states of the church; with different colored lines show the divisions by the treaties of Verdun and Mersen. Write in your notebooks a brief discussion of each of the following topics: The Saracen Conquest of Spain; Important Teachings of the Koran; Brief Accounts of the Lives and Work of Gregory the Great, St. Columban, Boniface, Gregory of Tours; Influences of the Early Church; Conversion of Clovis; the Salic Law; Charlemagne's Conception of the Duty of a Ruler as Found in the Capitulary of Year 802; The Palace School; Reasons for the Invasions of the Various German Tribes; The Rival Mohammedan Kalifates (Caliphates). Compare the careers of Julius Caesar and Charlemagne.

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CHAPTER VIII

EMPIRE AND PAPACY

62. The Growth of the Medieval Empire. — For nearly a Otto the century after the Treaty of Mersen the history of the eastern Great part of Charlemagne's realm is of little interest. The Carolingian dynasty had died out and the German Nobles then elected their own kings. Their power was little respected, and no great figure appeared on the stage of action until the reign of Otto the Great when closer relations were established again between the German ruler and the papacy. The imperial title gained by Charlemagne had not been retained by his successors, who were too busily occupied in defending their possessions against the invading Northmen or in trying to prevent their hereditary lands from breaking up into the folk duchies of the tribes conquered by Charlemagne. Meanwhile the imperial name had been borne by a number of Italian princes.

Otto was able to repel all invaders, defeating the Magyar hordes and driving them across the Danube, where they founded the kingdom still bearing their name.[1] He also bound the troublesome vassal states more closely to his own central government by the wise policy of putting his own relatives upon their ducal thrones. After thus rendering tranquil affairs at home, he turned his eyes to Italy, whence an appeal for aid had come to him from a sadly troubled pope, who hoped to find in him a second Charles the Great. In return for his aid against a troublesome Italian prince the pope crowned 962 A.D. him emperor of the "Holy Roman Empire," thus signally

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[1] Hungary, the kingdom of the Magyars.

indicating the mystic bond which united the empire and the papacy, a union productive of much trouble to pope and emperor alike in that neither was willing to yield precedence to the other in state affairs.

Annexation of Burgundy to the Empire   The successors of Otto the Great endeavored to follow in his footsteps. Conrad II, who ruled about fifty years later, was very successful in his administration. He adopted Otto's policy in regard to the stem duchies and secured the annexation of the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire. Burgundy or Arles lay in the southeastern part of what is now France, east of the Rhone River. Through it ran the great arteries of trade between the cities of Italy and of western Europe, and its people were among the most enlightened and prosperous of the time.

63. The Question of Church Reform. — One of the chief causes of dispute between the emperor and the pope was the question of leadership. Each desired to rule and each thought himself the only person competent to govern and even to reform the other. Without doubt both church and state had permitted conditions to arise which required improvement. In becoming wealthy the church had certain problems to solve, none harder than the group of difficulties connected with the ownership of real estate. The church held many lands, willed to it by devout Christians or acquired by purchase. Over such land as was within the empire, the imperial government naturally claimed authority; whereas the churchmen, as representatives of the Divine Power, felt that it ill became a mere temporal ruler to interfere with them. The dispute came to **Investiture** an issue on the question of investiture, the ceremony by which the bishop or high churchman was inaugurated into office. The bishop was not only the supervising priest of a diocese; he was frequently the imperial representative in the division of the empire coextensive with that diocese. Hence the emperor claimed the right of inaugurating the candidate for episcopal honors. Nothing more clearly illustrates the truth

of the statement that there are two sides to every question than does this quarrel between church and state. From the standpoint of the emperor and the state some control over the appointment of church officials was necessary; but, on the other hand, to the churchman it seemed almost sacrilege for a violent statesman or blood-stained war-chief to bestow the sacred office of bishop. This question was the central point around which raged the quarrel between empire and papacy.

Within the church itself other matters called for attention. **Simony** Men of great wealth but of worldly life had frequently been able to secure for themselves or their favorites important church positions for the sake of the added wealth or dignity thereby conferred. This practice, condemned by the best men of that time, is known as simony, after Simon the Magician, who attempted to buy the power of performing miracles from the apostles. This evil tended to bring the church officers into disrepute and even to destroy the spiritual motives of the clergy. Another matter for reform was the marriage of **Celibacy of** clergymen. The rule of the church which forbade clergymen **the Clergy** to marry was often disobeyed, but as the church became richer, the enforcement of this rule became more and more necessary from the standpoint of the church. A regular clergyman was supposed to surrender all his property to the common owner- ship of the church, and therefore a married monk who might desire to provide for his family was a danger to the property rights of the church. Furthermore the church believed that he would be less able to devote all his time and mind to the interests of his calling. Finally a married clergy under feudal conditions threatened the establishment of an hereditary priest- hood which was contrary to the democratic practice of the church. The early church fathers had recognized these ob- jections to a married priesthood, and numerous church councils and popes enjoined celibacy (bachelorhood) upon the clergy.

The chief agent for reform within the church was the Cluniac **The Reforms** movement. This began at the Burgundian monastery of **of Cluny**

Cluny, which belonged to the pope and into which none of
the evils mentioned above had crept.   The Cluniac monks
were renowned as earnest, hard-working men, who contributed
much to education and culture and who endeavored to elevate
the moral standards of the time.   This was due perhaps to the
fact that instead of maintaining a shut-in life in their own
monastery, the monks of Cluny founded many branch houses,
which were known collectively with the mother house as the
Congregation of Cluny.   The Congregation was subject to the
abbot of Cluny and to the pope and aided the church in its
struggles with the German rulers.

Policy of Gregory VII   **64. Pope Gregory VII's Struggle with the Empire.** — Among
the most noted of the early supporters of Cluniac ideals was
Pope Gregory VII, the story of whose struggles with Henry IV
of Germany is one of the most thrilling and significant in Euro-
pean history.   Early in his papacy he announced at a church
council that thereafter no clergyman who had gained his office
by the payment of money would be allowed to retain his office
or to perform any rites of the church.   Shortly afterwards he
issued a papal bull forbidding all clergymen to receive investi-
ture from the hand of any layman, thus throwing down the
gage of battle before the emperor.   A very famous document

The Dictatus   of the period, often called Gregory's Dictatus, although not
the work of that pontiff, expresses the platform of the papal
party in this struggle by the following claims: The pope has
the sole power of deposing rulers, of making new laws for the
church, of calling church councils, of absolving subjects from
their oaths of fidelity to wicked rulers.   He is the supreme
judge of Christendom and no act of a church council is legal
without his consent.

Not content with merely asserting such claims, Gregory
tried to force several rulers to recognize them by sending his
legates, or papal ambassadors, to the several courts.   The
answer that he received from William the Conqueror of Eng-
land is characteristic of that sturdy monarch: " I refuse to

do fealty, nor will I; because neither have I promised it, nor do I find that my predecessors did it to your predecessors."

But Gregory was too much absorbed in his struggle with a nearer ruler to attempt to humble the English king. The German emperor Henry IV was a rash and hot-tempered youth who paid no heed to Gregory's edict against lay investiture, but who returned this reply to the pope's letter of censure: "Henry, king not by usurpation, but by the holy ordination of God,[1] to Hildebrand,[2] not pope, but false monk. Come down, then, from that apostolic seat which you have obtained by violence; for you have been condemned by us and our bishops for your evil rule." Gregory's answer was to excommunicate, or declare outlawed from the church, the insolent emperor.

The German bishops, on whose support Henry had relied, became lukewarm after he was

THE PENITENCE AT CANOSSA

Barefooted, clad in the meanest rags, without protection from the inclemency of the wintry weather, Henry drank the cup of humiliation to the dregs in order to make his peace with the little man whose slender form to him embodied the might of the church.

Canossa

[1] Note the reference to the sacred character of the kingly office.

[2] Each pope, after his election to the papacy, renounces his former name and styles himself one or several names most common to the early church fathers. Hildebrand, on becoming pope, chose the name Gregory, being the seventh pope of that designation.

excommunicated by the pope, and many of his lords combined against him. He was compelled to seek forgiveness of Gregory, and the once proud king became a humble suppliant at the gates of the little town of Canossa in northern Italy, wherein the pope was wintering.

Victory of the Emperor   Armed with the pope's forgiveness, Henry returned to Germany and attempted to crush the discontented nobles who had set up a rival leader as emperor. Henry broke his promises to the pope, and Gregory finally took sides with Henry's rival by issuing a second excommunication against him. The majority of the German princes regarded the interference of Gregory in purely German affairs, such as the choice of a king, as attempted usurpation of their rights, and therefore rallied around Henry. Within two years Gregory surrendered Rome into the hands of the emperor and withdrew from public life forever. Yet even in defeat this hero of churchly ideals towers up grandly.
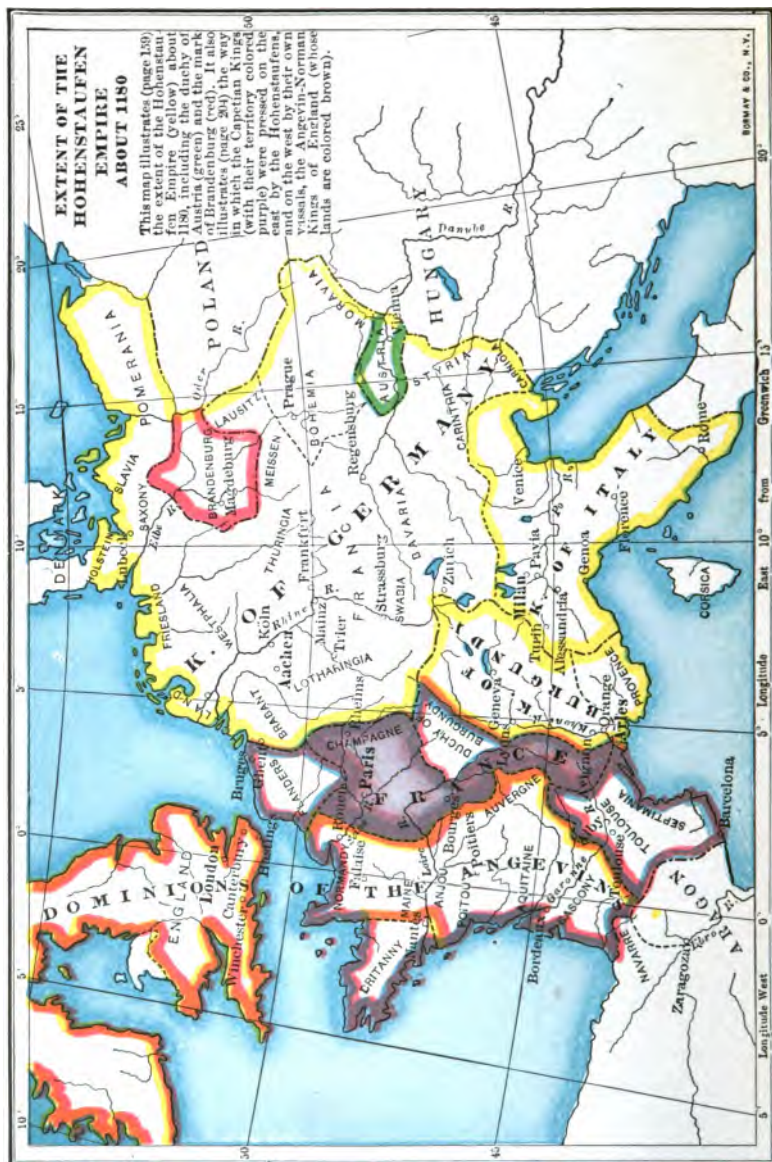
Investiture Compromised by the Concordat of Worms   In the reign of Henry's son, Henry V, the question of investiture was peaceably settled by the Concordat of Worms, 1122 A.D., by which the king agreed that, while he should thereafter invest the bishops with their fiefs, the pope or his representative had the sole right to invest them with the spiritual office and its emblems.

65. The Papacy and the Hohenstaufen Emperors. — Scarcely had the investiture dispute been settled when the popes were required to hold the balance of power between the emperor and the thriving mercantile cities of Lombardy.[1] With the reign of Frederick I, called Barbarossa or Redbeard, the medieval empire reached its height. He belonged to the family of Hohenstaufen, so called from their castle in Southern Germany. Frederick, the third ruler of this line, had a high ideal of the importance of his position, as is shown in a letter announcing his election to the imperial title: " God has established two

[1] The Po valley has been called Lombardy since its occupation by the Lombards.

EXTENT OF THE
HOHENSTAUFEN
EMPIRE
ABOUT 1180

This map illustrates (page 159)
the extent of the Hohenstaufen Empire (yellow) about
1180, including the duchy of
Austria (green) and the mark
of Brandenburg (red). It also
illustrates (page 204) the way
in which the Capetian Kings
(with their territory colored
purple) were pressed on the
east by the Hohenstaufens,
and on the west by their own
vassals, the Angevin-Norman
Kings of England (whose
lands are colored brown).

powers by which this world should be ruled, the empire and the papacy." His reign was one long struggle to retain supremacy over temporal affairs against the efforts of the discontented nobles of Germany who tried to place the Guelph claimant [1] on the throne, against the intrigues of the popes, and against the attempts at independence on the part of the Lombard towns.

With the reign of Frederick a new era began in the unfolding of town life. Townsmen gained a new sense of political freedom, brought into being by the struggle against imperial oppression. The towns of northern Italy began at this time to grow in wealth and prominence as their commerce and industry increased. Through many of them lay the highroad between the German ruler's peculiarly hereditary domain and his imperial capital. Through them he must pass on his journey to receive the imperial crown from the hands of the pope. By forming leagues, these towns were able to win certain political privileges from the emperor.

The most famous of these leagues was formed as follows: The city of Milan, one of the largest and wealthiest of the cities of northern Italy, insulted the imperial representative, who had been sent to inquire into complaints of extortion and cruelty laid against the city by some of the neighboring small towns. This outrage brought Frederick into Italy, where he received envoys from several towns with complaints against Milan. In a short time an assembly was called at Roncaglia, 1158 A.D., at which representatives of the towns and of the emperor discussed the respective rights of the town and of the imperial government. This assembly decided most of the disputed points in favor of Frederick, whereupon the leading towns of northern Italy, realizing that submission would be fatal to their liberty, formed the Lombard League. After inflicting a decisive defeat upon the imperial forces at the

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[1] The right of the Hohenstaufens to the imperial throne was fiercely contested for over a century by members of the Guelph family, which ruled in Saxony.

battle of Legnano (1176), the league opened up negotiations which led to the Peace of Constance (1183), in which the emperor, while retaining a shadowy sort of overlordship over them, gave up the right of taxing the towns without their consent.

The Story of Sicily   The German rulers had long desired the lands of southern Italy and Sicily, but Frederick was the first to gain them, by successfully arranging a marriage treaty between his son, Henry, and the heiress to the Norman kingdom of Naples and Sicily. Sicily has had a history of wonderful changes: colonized by the Greeks, partly conquered by the Carthaginians, incorporated into the Roman empire; then, upon the downfall of Roman rule in the West, alternately ruled by native princes, viceroys of the Byzantine emperors or Mohammedan corsairs, until organized in the eleventh century as a kingdom jointly with southern Italy by a family of northern sea-kings.

Henry VI   Hardly had Henry VI taken up the administration of his wife's dominions when word came of the death of his father, Frederick I. The ruler of Germany and all Italy and Sicily found that his path was beset with difficulties. In Germany the Guelph claimant raised the standard of revolt, while his wife's subjects, preferring the rule of a countryman to that of the German husband of their queen, chose Tancred, a Norman count, to rule over them. Fortune favored Henry in his hour of need: Richard Lionheart, on his way home to England (see p. 229) from the Third Crusade was captured by a loyal vassal of Henry VI and held prisoner because of the aid given Tancred by the English king. The great ransom paid by Englishmen to rescue their king enabled Henry to buy off many of his rebellious subjects, and the opportune death of Tancred left him in undisputed possession of the empire. In the midst of his triumph Henry fell a victim to disease, leaving an infant son, Frederick, and a brother, Philip, to uphold the honor of the Hohenstaufens. (See p. 189 for the outcome of the family.)

THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD IN THE DAYS OF THE CRUSADES

66. The Crusades. — The decline of the medieval empire was contemporaneous with the Crusades, the warlike expeditions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, usually aimed against the Mohammedans in Syria. In the eleventh century the Byzantine empire had reconquered most of western Asia from the Arabs; but about the time that William the Norman was making his plans for the conquest of England, a more formidable people than the Arabs appeared — namely, the Seljuk Turks — who defeated the Eastern emperor and drove his forces across the Bosphorus. Fearing that they would capture Constantinople, the Emperor Alexius asked Pope Urban II to arouse western Europe against the Turks.

Urban had adopted the policy of his famous predecessor, Gregory VII, against the world rulers, and was even then carrying on the contest against Henry IV of Germany and also against the son of William the Conqueror. He doubtless welcomed the opportunity to bring peace to Europe by drawing the attention of the temporal rulers to affairs outside of their own dominions, at the same time stimulating their interest in religion and the things of the church. At a great council held at Clermont (1095), Urban set forth the dangers threatening Constantinople and announced the capture of Jerusalem by the Turks. Jerusalem had always been a holy city in the eyes of Christians, so the news that the Turks were in possession and were not only mistreating Christian pilgrims to that city, but were even planning to invade Europe, as stated with great fervor by Urban, aroused the assembly to a high pitch. Urban painted a picture of Syria as a land flowing with milk and honey, in which homes might be obtained by all the poor and needy of Europe. The assemblage, excited at the thought of the desecration of the holy place, and further stimulated by the appeal to their desire for gain, cried with one accord, " It is the will of God."

The general movement of thousands of western Europeans in response to the appeal made at Clermont, is known as the

First Crusade, and had two phases. Within a few weeks after the council had adjourned, Peter the Hermit, a fanatical exhorter, collected a motley crowd of poor knights and discontented peasants and started by way of the forests of central Europe for the Holy Land. This phase did not prove dangerous to the Turks, for most of these misguided Crusaders fell in skirmishes with the Hungarians, whose fields they had foraged for supplies, and the remnant that reached Turkish soil was easily mastered. The second phase, under the leadership

CRUSADERS

Mounted Crusaders on their way to the Holy Land. When a Crusader set out he wore a cross on his breast; returning he wore it on his back.

of Count Godfrey of Bouillon and other famous knights of the time, proved more effective. A large and well-equipped army under these leaders reached the Holy Land, and after a number **About 1100** of difficulties captured the city of Jerusalem. They estab- **A.D.** lished four principalities, known as the Latin kingdoms of Syria, one of which, the kingdom of Jerusalem, lasted one hundred and fifty years.

The Third Fifty years later the capture of one of the Christian cities **Crusade** in the Holy Land by the Turks led to a second but unsuccessful Crusade to recapture it. The city of Jerusalem was **1187 A.D.** recaptured by Saladin, the heroic sultan of Egypt, and there immediately followed the Third Crusade, perhaps the most

interesting of all the Crusades. The leaders were Richard
Lionheart of England, Philip Augustus of France, his bitter
enemy, and Frederick Barbarossa. The latter had just ar-
ranged the marriage of his son to the heiress of Sicily. (See
p. 182.) Feeling affairs secure at home, he started for Syria,
but while attempting to cross a stream in Asia Minor, was
drowned. The remaining leaders quarrelled with each other
more than with the Saracens of Saladin, but the generalship

THE HOLY SEPULCHRE
The sepulchre is under the large dome.

of Richard won the respect of that skilful leader. A peace was
concluded between the Christians and Saladin, by which he
granted to them the right to visit the sacred places at Jerusalem.

An instance of the fanaticism of the crusading spirit may
be found in the Children's Crusade (1212). Thousands of
children started out from Germany in the hope that by the
sinlessness of their lives they might accomplish the miracle
of retaking the Holy Sepulchre. Some discouraged, returned
home safely, but many were captured and sold as slaves long
before they reached the Holy Land. The Crusading spirit

Other Cru-
sades

was at times diverted from its original purpose.   The Vene-
tians, urged by Pope Innocent III to retake Jerusalem, turned
aside to Constantinople and captured the capital of the Byzan-
tine empire.   For nearly sixty years this wealthy city, with
its enormous commerce
and industry, its stores
of learning, and its high
state of general culture,
was in the hands of the
Venetians, to the incal-
culable gain of their city
in wealth and learning.

Heresy

Another Crusade was
directed by Innocent
III against a religious
sect of southern France,
which was causing the
church considerable
anxiety.   The Albigen-
sians, or people of Albi,
believed the doctrines
of the Roman Church
were entirely wrong,
and were therefore con-
sidered heretics.   Her-
esy was regarded in the middle ages not only as a sin, but
even as a crime; the officers of the church were so frequently
officials of the state also that anyone who criticised one was
considered the enemy of the other.   If a person was found
guilty of heresy by the court of the Inquisition, a stern tri-
bunal of churchmen, he was handed over to the civil authori-
ties to be burned at the stake or buried alive.[1]

A VENETIAN SHIP

These ships, propelled partly by sails and
partly by oars, were familiar figures upon the
Mediterranean in the middle ages. They pre-
sented a gay appearance with their decorated
sails and flying pennants.

There were several other Crusades directed against the

[1] The church shed no blood; that is, it determined the guilt of the ac-
cused, but took no part in the execution except that of spiritual comforter.

Turks, but by 1244 the Latin kingdoms had failed and the civilization of western Europe, which the French leaders had endeavored to transplant to that part of the world, died out in the towns of Syria. But the Crusades had an important effect upon the West from the standpoints of education, commerce, and standards of living. The Arab scholars were much broader in thought than the educated men of the same time in Europe. They had developed algebra and the rudiments of chemistry and had translated many of the works of old Greek philosophers into their own language. By coming in contact with them the Europeans gained educationally. The two centuries during which bands of Crusaders or individual pilgrims journeyed to the East were productive of a great increase in commerce. The people of Syria welcomed the importation of articles produced in the West, and the Franks who had settled there wished to obtain home comforts. Thus a market for European goods was created in the East. The merchants of the Lombard towns grew wealthy from carrying eastward the homely goods of the West and in bringing back the costly spices, silks, and jewels of the Orient. Everywhere in Europe the standard of living was improved. Articles previously regarded as luxuries for princes were thereafter used in even the humbler families. The townsmen engaged more in manufacturing, in order that the demand of the Easterners for linens and woollens might be met, and with the growth of towns went hand in hand a greater freedom of thought and action, which brought truer political liberty and higher religious views to the people of the towns. *Effects of the Crusades*

Among the interesting features of the Crusades was the formation of three important military-religious orders — the Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic Knights. These societies were formed to defend pilgrims on their way to Jerusalem and to aid generally in the work of conquering and retaining the Holy Land. The Templars became very wealthy, and after the Crusades were over established themselves in power- *The Crusading Orders*

ful monasteries in France and England.[1]   The order received
its name from the circumstance that it was formed to guard
the Temple at Jerusalem.   The Hospitallers, or Knights of St.
John, began as a corps of men who looked after the sick and
wounded Crusaders; later they acquired property and formed
branches throughout Europe.   The Teutonic Knights were
formed for a similar purpose by a German merchant.   At the
conclusion of the Crusades they conquered the lands of the
Prussians south of the Baltic Sea and established there a state
destined to be the nucleus of the present German empire.

Innocent III and John of England

**67. The Triumph of the Papacy and End of the Medieval
Empire.** — A good example of the great power of the papacy
is afforded by the dealings of Pope Innocent III with John of
England.   A dispute over the archbishopric of Canterbury gave
the pope an opportunity to act as arbiter and to win from the
king a recognition of his overlordship over England, a victory
sought in vain by Gregory VII and Urban II.   The ignoble
King John, who later was forced to grant Magna Carta to
the English people, refused to accept the choice of the monks
of Canterbury, preferring a man of his own party.   When
asked to settle the dispute, Innocent III solved the problem
by rejecting both the former candidates and by appointing as
archbishop Stephen Langton, a man of the highest ability.[2]
John was furious at the pope's decision and refused to receive
Langton, but after the pope had placed an interdict over Eng-
land, excommunicated the king, and threatened to give his
crown to the French king, John surrendered, received Langton
as archbishop, acknowledged the pope to be his feudal superior,
and promised to pay him an annual tribute.

Henry VI's infant son was a ward of Innocent III, while
the boy's uncle carried on the struggle of the house against

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[1] The haughty Templar is well pictured in *Ivanhoe*, and it is probable
that in many instances these "Red-cross Knights" became oppressors of
the poor.

[2] This was a most momentous choice, for Stephen Langton was the
leader of the barons who wrung Magna Carta from King John.

a Guelph claimant to the throne. In this war of factions Innocent III reached the height of his power, as did the papacy also; for he favored first one side, then the other, and exercised, as in the case of John, the power claimed by Gregory of deposing and of setting up earthly rulers. When only fifty-six Innocent died, leaving to his successors a struggle greater than any of his reign. Frederick II had been educated by both Christian and Mohammedan scientists and professors at the court of the Sicilian rulers, and was very broad in his religious views. He decided to make his name more famous than that of his grandfather. Although he was insignificant in personal appearance, this slight man became the restorer of order in Germany, overcame the Lombard League, made his reign a truly golden age for the cities by curbing the powers of their feudal lords, recaptured for a short time the city of Jerusalem, although under the displeasure of the pope, and is considered by competent historians to have been the first of modern kings. Like his father, he died of disease on the eve of a new expedition. Within four years, 1254, his son followed him to the grave and the power of the Hohenstaufen family was ended. The medieval empire may be said to have come to a close with Frederick II, for a period of anarchy followed his death, and thereafter no German emperor made any definite attempt to regain his lost Italian kingdom.

68. The Organization of the Medieval Church. — The papacy reached its height in the thirteenth century, with the pontificate of Innocent III. By examining its organization at this time, a conception may be formed of the immense historic importance of this institution and of the church of which it was the head. Between the medieval church and any modern church there are many differences. In the first place membership in the medieval church was compulsory; a citizen of any medieval state was, whether he wished to be so considered or not, a member of the church, and could not separate himself from its authority without losing his right of protection from

the state.   Secondly, its revenues were raised by a definite system of taxes, called tithes, the payment of which was as necessary as the payment of the assessments of the civil government.   Lastly, unlike the modern church, it performed all the functions of the state.   It had its own courts and administrative officers, who often took upon themselves the duties neglected by state officials; it was organized like a monarchy, its king being the pope, who exercised tremendous power.

Power of the Pope   All the claims to power set forth in the Dictatus (see p. 178) had by this time been acknowledged by one or more of the temporal rulers.   The pope exercised this power in four ways — over legislation, over the courts, over rulers, and over other churchmen.   He controlled law-making by means of dispensations, that is, orders annulling church laws in certain cases; the courts by granting the right of appeal from decisions rendered elsewhere to his own court; rulers by threat of interdict, the closing of all religious services within the territory of a rebellious ruler, or by excommunication, the expulsion of an offender from membership in the church [1]; and other churchmen by exercising the right of removal and appointment.

The Parish Priest   The unit of organization within this spiritual empire was the parish, at the head of which was the parish priest.   His duties were those of a priest of modern times and, in addition, the direction of the affairs of the parish in a much more autocratic manner than that of any modern Catholic pastor.   The importance of his office cannot be overestimated.   The priest in the services of the church, in the celebration of mass in which the church taught transubstantiation,[2] sometimes seemed to his congregation to possess superhuman power.

[1] The full force of excommunication is difficult for many modern people to realize.   In the middle ages it was accepted as an utter blasting of all the hopes of future life; it rendered the excommunicated person an outlaw — even worse, a despicable criminal.

[2] Transubstantiation was the name given to the process by which the officiating clergyman changed the bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ.

Hence each parish became a compact unit of organization under the nearly absolute rule of its parish priest.
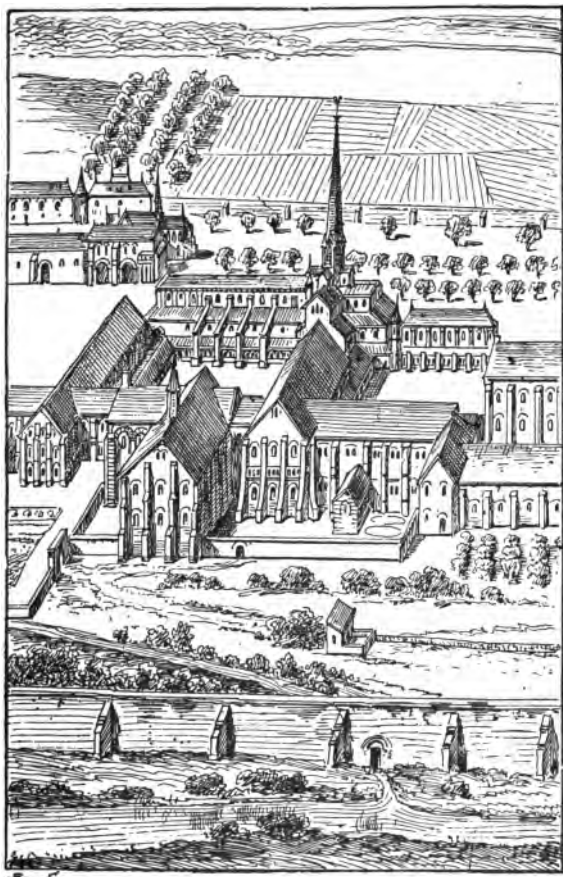
PLAN OF THE ABBEY DE CITEAUX

The abbey church stands at the back of the central block of buildings and forms the north side of the cloister.

In addition to the secular clergy, as the priests and bishops of the church were called, there were numerous establishments

The Regular Clergy

of Monks called regular clergy, from the fact that they agreed on entering the order to live up to its rule (*regula*, rule). These had no connection with the parish organization. Beside the older orders of monks, as the Benedictines or the Cluniacs, who from the first had their fixed places of abode in the monasteries of the order, there were two orders called friars, or brothers, who did much to combat heresy, promote education, and carry on charitable work. The order of Franciscan friars was founded by the son of a wealthy tradesman of Assisi, who in his early years had lived a frivolous and worldly life, but who thereafter had suddenly turned to the life of a religious enthusiast. This Francis of Assisi soon drew to himself a little band of religious workers who followed out literally the command of the Bible, "Take nothing for your journey, neither staff, nor wallet, nor bread, nor money," and who went apart from place to place, living lives of service to the poor and suffering. After his death this order increased greatly in numbers and wealth, and finally adopted the customs of the older monks, becoming one of the wealthiest and most influential of all the monastic orders.

The other order of friars, which did much to combat heresy, was established by Dominic, a Spaniard, to teach and preach against the Albigensian heresy. (See p. 186.) He recognized the truth of some of the charges against the church and determined to reform the lives of the clergymen of his time. The Dominicans rapidly adopted the customs of the monastic orders and became a bulwark of the church against heretical teachings, at the same time promoting education and charity.

69. Summary of the Empire and the Papacy. — The empire of Charlemagne was revived and put on a new basis by Otto the Great. He and his immediate successors bestowed the great folk-duchies upon relatives of the emperor and added to the territories of the empire. In a struggle with the papacy over temporal supremacy, the emperors compromised the question of investiture, but, coming in contact with the grow-

The Francis-can Friars

The Domini-can Friars

ing independence of the commercial cities of Italy, just as the Crusades were opening up trade with the East, they were defeated by the spirit of nationality arising within their Italian possessions. The Crusades broadened the West and increased the commerce of that section with the East. The church attained to a high point of authority, as is shown by the fact that the popes of the thirteenth century were masters of the states. Within the church evidences of laxity appeared which caused various heretical opinions, and also gave rise to new reform organizations within it.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Why was the assumption of the imperial title by the kings of Germany a mistake? Compare the idea of empire held by Charlemagne with that of Otto the Great. What inventions and scientific discoveries were brought to Europe as a result of the Crusades? Describe the relations between the eastern Roman empire and the Crusaders. Write in your note-books a report on the experiences of a Crusader: motives, vows, privileges, preparation, dress, armour, routes, benefits, and disadvantages of the experience. What were the sources of the pope's income? Explain the duties and importance of the medieval archbishops and bishops. How were they ' chosen? What were the seven sacraments of the medieval church? Explain the significance and importance of each. Quote Lea's description of the medieval church. Explain the methods of the Inquisition. Tell the story of the life of St. Francis, of St. Dominic. Contrast the Dominicans and Franciscans. Explain why Frederick II was "the first modern king." On a map of central Europe and Italy show the boundaries of the dominions of Frederick II at their widest extent. Locate Burgundy, Saxony, Lombardy, the states of the church, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Milan, Venice, Florence, Naples, Rome, Genoa.

On a map of the Mediterranean region show the Latin kingdoms in Syria, the eastern Roman empire, the routes of the Third Crusade. Locate Naples, Constantinople, Edessa, Antioch, Tripoli, Acre, Jerusalem.

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CHAPTER IX

ENGLAND IN THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES

70. Britain. — The British Isles were located so far from the centers of civilization in the ancient world that they were almost unknown until the time of Caesar. The waters separating these islands from Europe are twenty-one miles wide at their narrowest point, the Straits of Dover, and three hundred miles wide at their broadest extent, the North Sea. Thousands of years before the dawn of history, but in comparatively recent geological times, England was connected by land with the continent of Europe, and it is assumed that the first inhabitants came into these regions overland.

The larger of the two islands is divided by mountains into three natural divisions — England, Scotland, and Wales — of which England, by reason of its nearness to the continent, has had the most stirring history and was the earliest to attain a state of civilization. The gradual sinking of the lands connecting the British Isles with the continent, and of the coast line generally, has left the shore indented with many harbors suitable for shipping, while the numerous rivers, affording passage to sea-going crafts, have from earliest times accustomed the inhabitants to trade and commerce.

England proper may be divided into three parts. In the south there is a rolling country of hills, moors, and downs; in the north a series of rough mountains and moorland; between there is a great plain known as the Midlands. Scotland is divided into the northern highlands and southern lowlands. Ireland also has three regions: highlands in the south and north and, between, a central plain. Owing to the influence of the sur-

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rounding ocean and of the warm winds blowing from the west, the isles enjoy a much milder, though foggier, climate than does the corresponding latitude in America. In early times the aspect of the country was very different from that of modern England. Vast and almost impenetrable forests covered nearly

STONEHENGE

On Salisbury Plain in southern England stands a mysterious ruin, called Stonehenge, which consists of a number of gigantic, upright stones, standing pillar-like in a circle. Originally horizontal stones were placed across these. Nothing is known concerning the architects of the building or as to its purpose. Some have conjectured that it is what is left of a great Druid temple.

the whole surface. Wolves, wild boars and cattle, and savage bears were plentiful. The rivers, choked with fallen trees and undergrowth, overflowed to form fens and marshes.

Caesar's Invasions 55, 54 B.C.   When Julius Caesar made his expeditions against the early inhabitants of England, 55, 54, B.C., he wished to punish them for giving aid to the Celtic tribes of northern France, against whom he was campaigning. The Celts of England were called

Britons, or Gaels, and England was known as Britain. They had entered the island centuries before written records were kept, and had conquered and intermarried with an earlier race of men whom they found in possession of the land. The Britons were a pastoral people, with a few rude arts, engaging also

WALL OF HADRIAN (117–138)

It extends from the mouth of the Tyne to Solway Firth, 73½ miles; height 12 feet (with parapet, 16), thickness about 8 feet. Material, concrete, faced with square blocks. On the north a ditch, 10 to 15 feet deep, about 32 feet wide at top. Along the line, 18 walled camps, watch towers and "mile-castles" between.

in a little agriculture. In the west and south were lead and tin mines, which attracted trade from the continent. The Britons wove a coarse cloth, and delighted in varied and bright colors. The men wore long hair and mustaches. They were very hospitable and entertained their guests with music and athletic contests. Like their kinsmen in France, they had a complicated religious system, known as Druidism, with a regular priesthood and human sacrifices. Caesar made two

unsuccessful campaigns in southern Britain, and finally with-
drew to take up his struggle against Pompey.

The Roman Conquest   The Roman conquest of Britain began in earnest about a
century later, during the reign of the emperor Claudius, and
was completed within a generation by the great general Agri-
cola, whom Domitian sent to conquer and govern the island.

MULTI-ANGULAR TOWER IN ROMAN WALL AT YORK `

During his administration the island became thoroughly
Roman in language, dress, religion, and customs, and for three
hundred years thereafter the Britons enjoyed the Pax Romana
(Roman Peace).   The Romans were unable to conquer the
wild tribes of the northern highlands, the Picts and Scots,
therefore they constructed mighty walls from sea to sea — the
wall of Hadrian over the Cheviot Hills, and the wall of Antonine
at the Firth of Forth.   To facilitate the movement of their
troops and to promote commerce, the Romans constructed
great highroads, like those on the continent.   Portions of the

walls and roads are still to be found in England. From the
Firth of Forth to the English Channel, with the exception of Results
the mountainous region of Wales, Roman country estates or
fortified cities filled the land.   The people of England grew so
accustomed to rely upon the Roman legions for protection that
they lost their early warlike spirit.   When the German tribes
began to overrun the Roman empire and the Roman soldiers
were withdrawn to defend the imperial city, the Romanized
Britons were unable to defend themselves against the same
invaders and England became a Germanic state.

SAXON CHAIRS AND SEATS
FROM PICTURES IN MSS.
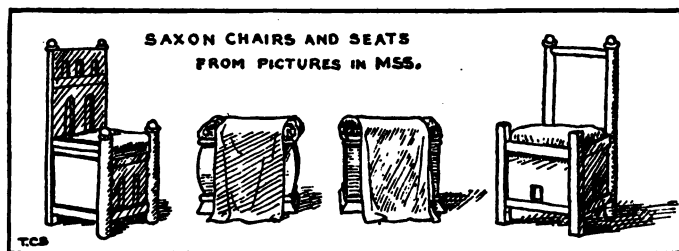
71. Saxon England. — The writer who gives us the best Character-
contemporary picture of the customs of the Germans is the istics of the
Roman Tacitus, a son-in-law of Governor Agricola, who lived Germans
in the first century A.D.   He says: "They have fierce blue
eyes, ruddy hair, large bodies fit only for sudden exertion.
They cannot endure heat and thirst, but are used to cold and
hunger.   Whenever not fighting, they pass much time in hunt-
ing, and still more in idleness, giving themselves up to feasting
and to sleep.   Their food consists of wild fruit, game,
and sour milk.   Every German, according to his means,
receives his guest with a well-furnished table.   In quenching
their thirst they are not moderate, but indulge their love of
drinking in a liquor fermented from grain and in wine.   So
fond are they of gambling with dice that they will stake the
freedom of their own persons, the loser going into voluntary
slavery.   They delight in gifts from neighbors, such as choice

horses, heavy armor, and jewelery, or even of cattle or grain."

The early Germans were in about the same stage of ciliviza-
tion as were the Iroquois Indians in the seventeenth century.
Their political system was similar, for, like the Indians, they
were divided into tribes and were led in war by chiefs, and
were influenced by priests who, like the Indian medicine-men,
called upon the powers of nature. This resemblance is further
shown in the following extract from Tacitus: "They have
no cities, dwelling apart, and making no use of stone. It is a
duty among them to adopt the feuds as well as the friendships
of their family. They think it tame to plough the earth and to
wait for the produce." Yet in one respect the earliest Ger-
man settlers in England were in advance of the Indians. The
Indians, it is true, had their councils for the discussion of mat-
ters which concerned the tribe, but these were unlike the as-
semblies of the German tribes, at which all the freemen of the
tribe were entitled to take part in judging public affairs. These
assemblies, or folk-moots, were more like the town meetings of
New England, and probably were the germ from which have
grown all the legislatures and courts of the English government
and of our own.

The purpose of education among the Germans was to train
warriors. Boys of noble birth associated themselves with

men of strength and bravery, and fought for them in war. In
return they were supported by their leader and received a
share in the booty taken under his guidance. This arrange-
ment is known as the comitatus, or companion custom, and its
common acceptance by the people of the early middle ages was
one of two factors in the growth of feudalism.

The religion of the early Germans was a gloomy worship of
the powers of nature. Their principal gods were fighters, whose
names have come down to us in the names of the days of the
week. Woden (also spelled Odin), the All-father, and Thor,
the Thunderer, are commemorated by Wednesday and Thurs-
day. It was believed that the hero dying on the battlefield

was carried off to Valhalla, the banquet hall of the gods, by the Valkyries, daughters of Woden, to enjoy a Paradise of feasting and fighting. Yet even this was only temporary, for there was to come a Twilight of the Gods, when the powers of evil would triumph and heaven and earth would pass away.

The German tribes sometimes permitted a criminal to atone for his crime by paying a sum of money, called wergild, to the family of the injured person. The guilt of the accused was determined by compurgation or by ordeal.[1] Compurgation, or wager of law, was accomplished by having a number of men, called compurgators, take solemn oaths for or against the plea made by the accused. If more persons swore to his innocence than to his guilt he was acquitted,

Legal Forms

ELEVATION OF A SAXON KING

Like all German tribes, the Saxons signified the election of their king by raising him on their shields.

but the oath of a noble was worth as much as the oaths of several common citizens. The ordeal was a physical test of the accused, based on the belief that the gods would preserve the innocent man from harm. The accused was sometimes required to carry a red-hot iron in his hand. If after three

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[1] Somewhat later a third form of trial was instituted. This was the trial by combat, in which the accused and his accuser fought a duel, and the case was decided in favor of the winner. Either side was permitted to select a champion to fight for it, as in the story of *Ivanhoe*.

days his hand appeared to be well, or at least healing satis-
factorily, the man was declared innocent.   Sometimes the
accused was thrown into deep water,   If he sank he was con-
sidered innocent and was rescued, but if he floated on the
water his guilt was believed.

After the withdrawal of the Roman legions from Britain vari-
ous bands of Germans belonging to the tribes of Angles, Jutes,
and Saxons ravaged the coasts and entered the service of Celtic
princes.   As soon as they were strong enough they conquered the
natives and established German states.   The Angles settled on
the eastern coast and formed the kingdoms of East Anglia, Ber-
nicia, and Deira; later they penetrated into the Midlands, the
border country between the remnants of the British and their
own countrymen, and established there a march state, Mercia.
The Jutes in the southeast were known as Kentishmen and their
kingdom, Kent.   The tribes destined to become most promi-
nent in English history were of the Saxon-folk.   The Saxons
established three kingdoms in the south, called after them
Sussex (South Saxons), Essex (East Saxons), and Wessex (West
Saxons).   For over four hundred years the Anglo-Saxons, as
the German tribes of England are generally called, were busy
conquering the Britons, whom they called Welsh, or foreigners,
and striving with each other for leadership.   Edwin, king of
Northumbria, the combined kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira,
north of the Humber River, made his power felt throughout
England, and built a strongly fortified city on the Firth of
Forth, which was called in his honor Edwin's City or Edin-
burgh.   At another time Mercia all but won the supremacy.

Finally, two hundred years after Edwin's death, Egbert, king
of Wessex, was recognized by Saxons, Angles, and Celts as ruler
of the island south of the Firth of Forth.

72. The Conversion of England. — The story is told of a
bishop of the church, who afterward became the great Gregory,
patron of missions, that, seeing some beautiful slaves for sale
in the Roman market place, he inquired of the merchant

whence he procured them. The merchant replied: " They are Angles from Deira." This was the name given the southern part of Northumbria. Gregory is said to have made Latin puns upon these names. " Truly," said he, "*De ira!*" (literally, "From the wrath." He meant that they were saved from the wrath of God in that they had been brought to a Christain country). " And they are angels, not Angles," he went on. Whether this story is true or not, Gregory, when he became pope, sent the monk Augustine on a mission to the Anglo-Saxons. Taking about forty companions, Augustine landed in Kent and won from King Ethelbert, perhaps through the influence of the latter's Christian wife, a member of the Frankish royal family, permission to establish there · a church. About thirty years later, this church of Canterbury had become strong enough to engage in further mission work. Ac-

ST. MARTIN'S CHURCH
(CANTERBURY)

The oldest church in England.

A part of this church was a ruined temple, dating from the Roman occupation. Here Augustine and his monks carried on their mission in Kent.

Conversion of
Northumbria

cordingly one of its leaders entered Northumbria and presented the teachings of his faith before King Edwin, at a council called by the king to decide whether his people should adopt the new faith. The sayings of two of his wise men are helpful to an understanding of the character and beliefs of the Anglo-Saxons.

Coifi, the high priest of the old religion, when asked for his opinion on Christianity, replied: " The religion that we have hitherto professed has no usefulness in it, for none of our folk have served in the worship of its gods with greater faithfulness than I, and yet there are many who are more prosperous than I." Another said, with the poetry of the Saxon mind: " The present life of man on earth, O King, seems to me, in comparison with eternity, like the swift flight of a sparrow through the room wherein you sit at meat in winter with your friends and a good fire in the midst, whilst the storms of rain and snow beat without; the sparrow flying in at one door and immediately out at the other; for an instant he is safe from the wintry storm, but soon vanishes into the storm without. Even so appears the life of man. If this new teaching contains something more definite, it deserves to be followed."

The Council at Whitby 664 A.D.   As these monks from the south of England continued their mission work in the north, they came into conflict with other missionaries, who had been sent from Ireland and western Scotland. Long before this the famous St. Patrick had converted the Irish; but during the centuries since his death, the Roman church had developed new customs and beliefs, and these were neither accepted nor understood by the Irish monks. Accordingly the king of Northumbria called a council of the churchmen of both missions at Whitby, in order that he might hear both sides and decide which teachings to adopt. The Roman monks set forth their claim to have received their authority from the bishop of Rome, to whom, as the successor of St. Peter, had been given the keys of heaven. The Irish monks sadly confessed to the king that they were unable to claim such authority for their preaching, whereupon the king decided in favor of Roman Christianity. The importance of this decision was great. England was retained by the Roman church and gained materially from the association with the higher civilization of Rome and other Roman Catholic countries.

Literature soon began to flourish, churches and monasteries

were built, monastic schools were established, and the monks brought in better methods of the cultivation of the soil and of manufacturing.   In the monastery at Jarrow lived a monk famed for his piety and great influence as the " Venerable Bede," who was the first English historian.   His " Church History of England " gives us much important information about early Saxon England.   Caedmon, an uneducated but inspired servant in a monastery at Whitby, composed poems dealing with the stories of the creation and with other Bible narratives.   Although both authors used the old Anglo-Saxon

Bede and Caedmon

ANGLO-SAXONS ON A JOURNEY

language in many of their works, Bede's chief work, the church history, was written in Latin, the official language of the church.

The share of the church in the unification of England was very important.   Theodore, another monk, organized bishop-rics in all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms and placed them all under the spiritual leadership of the mother church at Canterbury, thus preparing the different tribes for a political union when the leader appeared, strong enough to bring all England under his rule.

Influence of the Church

73. The England of Alfred the Great. — During the period of the Christianizing of England (Angle-land), Northumbria, Mercia, and finally Wessex, had taken turns at holding a kind of overlordship over the other Anglo-Saxon states.   A year

The North-men Attack England

after Charlemagne took the imperial title, Egbert, who had been educated at the school of the palace (see p. 164) and who had there studied statesmanship to some advantage, was recalled to Wessex. He soon forced the other states of England to acknowledge that he was king of the Anglo-Saxons. His son and grandson were forced to defend their kingdom against
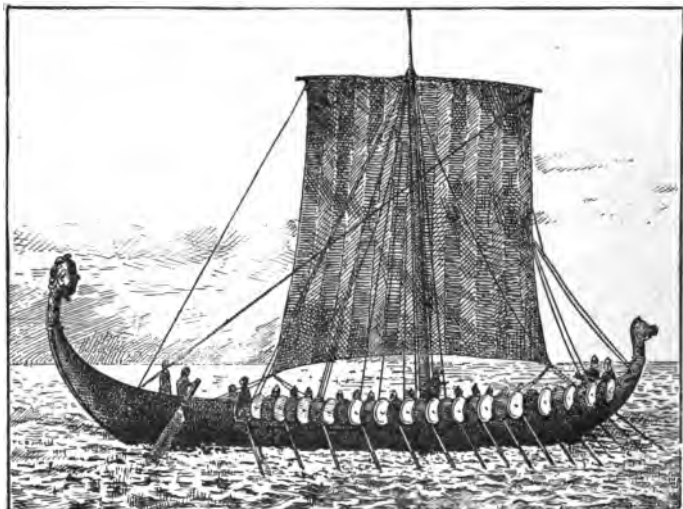
SHIP OF THE NORSE SEA-KINGS

After being buried for nearly a thousand years, this ship was found at Gokstad, in South Norway. In such a ship Eric the Red sailed to Greenland about 980 A.D.

the Danes, other Northmen, who were at this time terrorizing all of northern Europe. The first invasions of these Vikings were made in their long ships along the coasts and up the rivers. After ravaging the country far and wide they retired with their booty to their own land. Later, these piratical expeditions gave place to attempts at colonization.

Origin of Normandy   One hundred years after the reign of Charlemagne a band of Vikings had ravaged the coasts of northern France. In

order to gain the friendship of so powerful a foe, the Carolingian king, Charles the Simple, granted their leader a dukedom in northern France, which was called, after them, Normandy. In the century that followed they adopted the French language and customs and developed into the most progressive of the French states.   Their capital, Rouen, became the center of religious and commercial activity for northern France.

By the time of Alfred, Egbert's grandson, the Danes had 878-886 A.D. won the greater part of the Anglican kingdoms and were threatening to crush the remainder of the Anglo-Saxons.   Alfred proved to be a general of no mean ability.   Although many times defeated, he at last stopped the Danish advance and Line of the So-called Treaty of Wedmore established a line from the Thames to Chester as the boundary between Danelaw, or the Danish kingdom, and Wessex.

Alfred is rightly considered the greatest of the early kings of England.   Although he was unable to win back the Danelaw from the Danes, a work reserved for his successors, his The Reforms of Alfred the Great influence on English history was greater than that of any other Anglo-Saxon.   He ranks high as a military genius, as a promoter of learning and literature, and as a statesman.   He organized an army system whereby one half of his soldiers would be in the field fighting the Danes, while the other half was engaged in raising the necessary food for the country. By this militia system he was enabled to carry on the unequal struggle against the Danes until he conquered and Christianized them.   In imitation of Charlemagne's school he established a court school for the education of the young men of prominent families.   He translated into vigorous Anglo-Saxon several extracts from classical authors.   He aided in the writing of history by having accurate records kept year by year.   The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which records the important events "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" of English history from the ninth to the twelfth centuries, was begun during his reign.   The following extract from the "Chronicle" shows the nature of the record kept and the difference between Alfred's and our own English speech:

Þa   sona æfter þæm com   Hæsten   mid LXXX scipa up on   Temese-muþan,
Then soon after that came Hastings with 80   ships up within Thames'-mouth,
ond worhte   him geweorc   æt Middeltun on l   se oþer here   æt   Apuldre.
                   (works)
and wrought him fortifications at   Middletown and   the other army   at   Appledoor.

Alfred drew up a set of dooms, or judgments, for various offences, and carefully supervised the work of his judges in order to secure to all his subjects the greatest possible justice.

Alfred's Character   In character Alfred was superior to all other rulers of his time. The following prayer attributed to him shows the sweetness and intensity of his religious convictions: " O Lord, Creator and Ruler of all things, I beseech Thee to guide me better than I have deserved from Thee; direct me according to my need, better than I can; strengthen me against temptation; shield me from my enemies; and teach me to do Thy will, that I may love Thee above all things with a pure mind and pure body. Amen."

Saxon Government   **74. The Close of the Saxon Period of English History. —** After the death of Alfred his descendants carried on the war against the Danes until Danelaw was reconquered for Saxon England. Alfred's grandson added the title " Lord of Britain " to the earlier title " King of the Anglo-Saxons." In the Saxon kingdom the unit of government was the hundred, which corresponded closely to our town. Several families who lived in one neighborhood, usually about a hundred in number, met several times a year to transact business of common interest and to settle neighborhood disputes. These meetings, or hundred-gemotes, were the sole agency of government within the hundred, and corresponded to the New England town meeting. A number of hundreds grouped together formed a shire or county, which, like the hundred, had its gemotes or courts at which justice was dispensed and the laws of the king were proclaimed and explained. The shire differed from the hundred in that the king was represented in the former by an official, called the shire-reeve (later sheriff), who raised the taxes and enforced the royal laws. The noble families of the

THE BRITISH ISLES
during the
LATER SAXON PERIOD

SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140

shire were represented by the alderman, who commanded the shire militia in war.

The king had his moot for the whole kingdom composed of the aldermen, bishops, abbots, and other officials. This was called the Witen-a-gemot (meeting of wise men) or Witan. All important action was done by its advice.

ENTRANCE TO AN ANGLO-SAXON WALLED TOWN

In Saxon England there was a rude abundance. Herds of swine fed upon the acorns in the forests, and cattle and sheep were plentiful. The food was chiefly meat or fish and a black bread made of oats and barley. Cabbage was the main vegetable, as potatoes were unknown. Mead, a drink made of fermented grain and honey, and malt ale were the beverages of the peasant, and wine of the wealthier people. The man of large estate dwelt with his family in the great high-roofed hall. The fire was built on a hearth in the center and the smoke escaped through a hole in the roof. The table was a huge plank resting on trestles. Food was served on great platters, and there were no individual plates or forks. The meat was taken from the platter and placed on thick slices of bread

Life in Saxon England

in front of each person. After the feast the women retired from
the hall, and scenes of story-telling, minstrelsy, and heavy
drinking ensued until all were drowsy. Then the lord retired
to his own bed and the rest of the company usually lay down
on the rush-strewn floor of the hall and went to sleep.

The men wore a sort of a tunic held in at the waist with a
belt in which was a sheath knife. Long stockings, outer coats
and shoes of leather completed their costume. The women,

RESIDENCE OF AN ANGLO-SAXON THANE

over the tunic which reached to the ground, wore a cloth head-
dress, the wimple, which was wrapped around the neck and
over the head. In cold weather they wore a hood over this.

Danish Conquest

A century after Alfred's death a new movement of the
Danes, directed by the government of Norway and Denmark,
began a more systematic attempt at conquest. For several
years the Danes were bought off by the payment of an annual
tribute, called Danegeld. This was levied upon their subjects
by the Saxon rulers and is the first instance of national taxa-
tion in English history. A vigorous Danish leader, Canute,
king of Denmark, at last forced Ethelred the Unready to

abandon England and to take refuge at the court of Normandy. Canute was recognized as king of England and proved an able, if somewhat severe, ruler. By combining several shires he formed earldoms and concentrated the power of several aldermen in the hands of one earl.
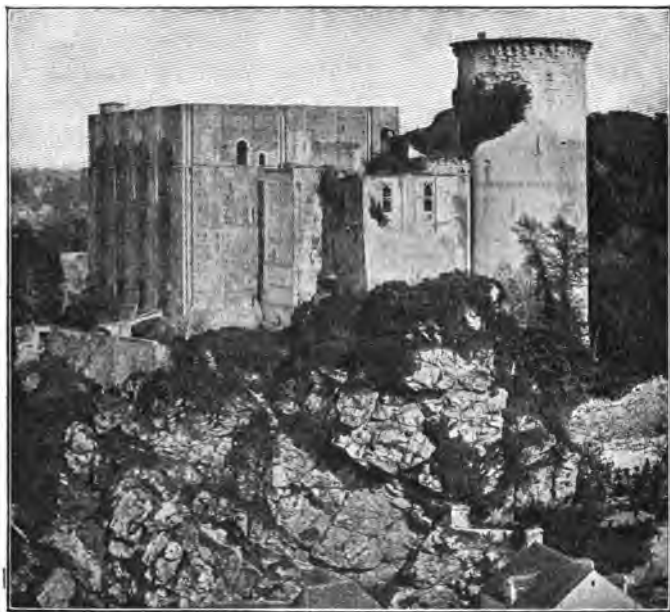
CASTLE OF FALAISE

The birthplace, in 1027, of William the Conqueror, son of Duke Robert the Devil, and of Arlette, a tanner's daughter.

Soon after the death of Canute the Saxon line was restored to the throne in the person of Ethelred's weak son Edward. The long reign of this king, who was called " Confessor " because of his preference for the life of a monk rather than that of a statesman, was marked by little of political significance, except the growth of the power of the great earldoms, which corresponded quite closely to the folk-duchies of the German

Reign of Edward the Confessor

empire. During this time religion flourished in England and monasteries and abbeys were erected in great numbers, among them the predecessor of the present famous Westminster Abbey. The Earls of Wessex and Northumbria became very powerful and each strove to be the real ruler of England. Harold, Earl of Wessex, the brother-in-law and adviser of the childless King Edward, desired to succeed him on the throne. Edward, however, favored his cousin, William Duke of Normandy, because his youth had been spent under the influence of the Norman court, and he surrounded himself with Norman courtiers. These so disgusted the Witan, or council of great lords of England, that they exercised their right of electing Edward's successor by choosing Harold for their ruler.

Duke William, however, believed he had a better claim to the Eng-

HAROLD SWEARING UPON THE RELICS (Taken from the Bayeux Tapestry.)

lish crown than had Harold. Furthermore, he alleged that Harold, while on a visit to his city, had most solemnly sworn to aid him in securing the crown. Accordingly in 1066 William set forth for England with a large army and landed at Hastings on the southern coast. William's enterprise was supported by the pope, who excommunicated Harold for breaking his oath of loyalty.[1] At the same time Harold's treacherous brother, Toste, invaded Northumbria. Toste was in league with the king of Norway, who claimed the throne by right of descent from Canute. Hurrying north, Harold defeated and killed these invaders at the battle of Stamford Bridge, and then, although weary and poorly supplied, made a forced march southward to meet the advancing army of Duke William. Had he been fresh for this battle of Hastings, or Senlac, English history might have been fundamentally changed; but as it was, his tired soldiers gave way before the onslaught of the Normans, and Harold himself was killed.

Invasion of Engand by William

75. Norman England. — Harold's death left England without a defender. William marched upon London, whereupon the Witan, terrified, offered him the crown, which he accepted. During the next five years he was busy in all parts of England, completing the conquest and establishing a strong government. He showed wisdom as a ruler in several ways, particularly in his governmental policy and in his relations with the papacy. Instead of crushing out English forms of government, he wisely adopted most of the old system, thus rendering his control less irksome to the Saxons. It is true that he replaced Saxon lords with Norman lords and, by scattering their possessions in different parts of the island, prevented the growth of the large earldoms which had been such a menace to the power of the later Saxon kings; and yet he retained intact the shire system, the laws issued by the Saxon rulers, the royal power

The Conquest

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[1] Since an oath was a solemn promise to God, the church claimed the right to try cases of oath-breaking. It was for this reason that the church courts for so long claimed superior authority to those of the state in cases involving contracts of all sorts, such as marriage, divorce, wills, etc.

of taxation (Danegeld), and most important of all, he recognized the right of the upper classes of the people to have a share in the government, by continuing the witan. The witan, thereafter called the great council, in form similar to the Mayfields of the Frankish rulers (see page 163), was summoned regularly three times each year, and later developed into parliament. Another instance of his political wisdom was the Salisbury Oath. Summoning all the landholders to meet on the plain at Salisbury, he required each of them to take an oath of allegiance to him. By this act he prevented the feudal relations in England from causing him and his successors the many difficulties which were experienced by the continental rulers. This is easily understood from a study of this diagram.

Salisbury Oath *(margin)*

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CONTINENTAL FEUDALISM
CAUSED BY SALISBURY OATH

The arrow shows feudal allegiance due the one to whom it points.
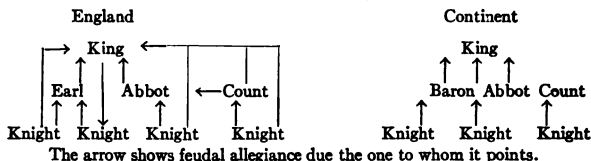
He also caused a census of the property owners of England to be made and recorded in a great book, Doomsday Book, in which is set down every piece of personal or real property possessed by his subjects. This list proved valuable to him as a basis for taxation.

Doomsday Book *(margin)*

In his relations with the church and with the papacy in particular, William showed that he intended to be the master, although he wished to further their interests where they did not conflict with his own. He was grateful to the church for supporting his cause during the conquest and gave great freedom of jurisdiction to the Church courts, yet when Pope Gregory attempted to enforce in England the doctrine of the supremacy of the church ·in temporal matters, William declined to recognize this doctrine. (See p. 178.) In the Statutes of Winchester, so-called because issued at a great council held at that city, he stated that without royal consent no English-

Relations with the Church *(margin)*

Statutes of Winchester *(margin)*

man could be excommunicated, no pope should be recognized, no papal decree could be proclaimed in England, no church councils held or church laws enacted in his realm.   In these laws William stated his own conception of the right relation between church and state, as opposed to that of the Dictatus.

DOOMSDAY BOOK

Reduced fascimile of entries, the record of a survey of the population and resources of England in 1086.

William the Conqueror was tall and heavily built.   He had a violent temper and yet great power of decision, ability to command men, and a thorough knowledge of warfare.   " The very spirit of the sea-robbers from whom he sprang seemed embodied in his gigantic form, his enormous strength, his savage countenance, his desperate bravery, the fury of his wrath,

William's Character

the ruthlessness of his revenge." No man could bend his bow. " Stark man he was," writes a contemporary, " and great awe men had of him. So harsh and cruel was he that none dared withstand his will. Earls that did aught against his bidding he cast into bonds; bishops he stripped of their bishoprics, abbots of their abbacies. He spared not his own brother: but cast him into bondage." While campaigning against the French king he was thrown from his horse and died of his injuries.

76. The Effects of the Norman Conquest. — The effects on England and Englishmen of the Norman Conquest were epoch-making. The race, language, government, architecture, commerce, and industry of England thereafter took on widely different aspects from those of the Anglo-Saxon period. At first the Normans and Saxons were slow to intermarry, the ruling classes being generally of the former race and the peasants of the latter; but, as the middle class artisans from the manufacturing cities of northern France mingled with the English population, the two races gradually joined.

The immediate effect of the Conquest upon the language spoken in England was to crowd out the Anglo-Saxon, substituting for it the Norman-French. As the races mingled the Anglo-Saxon came back into its own, and its shorter and more vigorous words displaced many of the Norman-French. The majority of the words of modern English are of Anglo-Saxon origin. The chief work of the Norman-French in shaping our speech was to trim down the cumbersome declensions and conjugations with which the Anglo-Saxon, in common with other Germanic languages, was loaded.

Before William I organized the government of England, the power of the king was altogether dependent upon personal ability. Thereafter the king had definite political duties and status; the government was more strongly centralized; and the great council, or Witan, met regularly and exerted more influence over the affairs of the nation. The germ of the present English cabinet may be found in the group of advisers to

(1) On the Race

(2) On the Language

(3) On the Government

BRITISH ISLES AND NORTHERN FRANCE IN THE TIME OF WILLIAM I

the Norman rulers. This set of officials, known as the curia regis, or king's court, must not be confused with the great council of the kingdom composed of all the barons and higher clergy. The most important of these officers were the justiciar, whose judgments were second in authority only to those of the king; the chancellor, or secretary of state, keeper of the great seal; and the treasurer, whose duties are apparent. Dur-
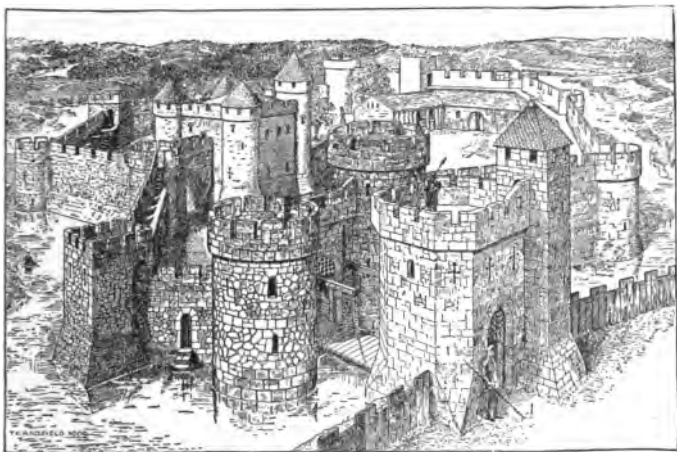
A NORMAN CASTLE

ing the reign of Henry I these officers made journeys throughout England to hear disputes and to enforce the king's law, and thus brought home to the people a sense of the reality of the king's authority.

As the Normans were a very devout people, it is not surprising that their architects began the erection of the beautiful cathedral churches which are the pride of Englishmen to-day. To assist them in holding their newly won possesssions, they built huge castles of stone, the ruins of which still impress the beholder. The building material of the Anglo-Saxons had been chiefly wood and plaster, whereas the Normans built of more

(4) On Architecture

enduring material. Hence they were able to bring architecture to a much higher point than that of the previous period.

The Norman artisans and the weavers from Flanders, the country now called Belgium, introduced many new crafts into England and greatly increased the commercial relations of that country with the continent. The Conquest, then, had far-reaching effects upon the development of English history,

THE TOWER OF LONDON

As seen to-day. The square building in the center was begun in the reign of William the Conqueror.

and upon that of our own country also, in that we have drawn heavily upon England for our institutions.

77. Summary of Early English History. — Little known to Europe until the Christian era, England began to play an important part in history during the Roman empire. When the Romans withdrew to defend Rome, the Britons were conquered by the Angles and Saxons. The Anglo-Saxons developed their institutions on British soil and laid the foundations for our language, customs, and laws. The Danes added a vigor-

ous element to the population and were responsible for the unsettled condition of the country which made the Norman Conquest possible. Duke William of Normandy invaded England and after ten years' intermittent warfare completed the Conquest. The Normans established a strongly centralized government, promoted commerce with the continent of Europe, and broadened English life and institutions.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of Europe show the movements of the various Germanic tribes mentioned in this chapter. On a map of England locate Stonehenge, London, Chester, York, Canterbury, Edinburgh, Whitby; show the line of Hadrian's Wall, Antoine's Wall, Treaty of Wedmore; indicate the following sections of the island: Wales, Strathclyde, Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Kent, Sussex, Essex, Wessex. On a map of northern Europe show the dominions of William the Conqueror; locate Rouen, Bayeux, Hastings, Stamford Bridge, London, Bec, Paris; indicate the Seine and Thames rivers.

(The following questions may be studied in Beard's *Introduction to the English Historians:* Macmillan. Page references are given.)

Contrast the Conquest of Gaul and Britain, p. 6, §1. Character of Anglo-Saxon Conquest, 8, §2. British and Roman Survivals, 9, §3. Two results of the Conquest, 10. Mission of Augustine, 12, §1. Conversion of Northumbria, 15, §2. Synod of Whitby, 17, §3. Theodore and the Church, 21, §4. Baeda (Bæde), 23, §5. Alfred the Great and English Learning, Chapter IV. Anglo-Saxon Government, 55, §§ 3, 5. Coronation of William the Conqueror, 61, §§ 1 to 5. Anglo-Norman Feudalism, 73, §§1–3.

(The following topics are based on Cheyney's *Readings in English History.* Page references are given.)

Description of Britain in ancient times, 2–6. Description by Modern Writers, 6–7. Customs of the Britons, 15–18. Decay of Britain after Departure of Legions, 32–34. The Anglo-Saxon Race, 40–46. Story of Caedmon, 53–56. Alfred the Great: Boyhood, 63–64; Wars, 64–67; Reforms, 67; Dooms, 80–82. Duties of Lords and Vassals, 132, 135. The Battle of Senlac (Hastings), 98–101.

(The following source studies are to be found in Thatcher and McNeal, *Source-book for Medieval History:* Scribners.)

Descriptions of the Germans, pp. 2–8; Gregory sends missionaries to the English, p. 92; Ordeals, pp. 400–10.

(The following topics are based on Tüell and Hatch, *Readings in English History:* Ginn.)

The Early Germans, 1–10.   The Conversion of the English, 11–15.   The Government of the English, 15–18.   Alfred the Great, 26–36.   The Results of the Norman Conquest, 39–50.

(The following topics are based on Synge, *Social Life in England:* Barnes.) Prehistoric Britain, 1–14.   Roman Britain, 15–30.   Saxon Customs, 31–46.   The Conversion of the English, 57–60.   Norman England, 61–73.

(The following topics are based on Traill, *Social England*, Vol. I, Sec. I.) The Celtic Civilization, 1–37.   Roman Britain, 37–106.   The Celtic Religion, 106–113.   Britain under the English, 175–205.   Anglo-Saxon Religion, 217–224.   The Danish Invasion, 205–17.   The Coming of Christianity, 224–39.   Saxon and Danish Army Systems, 256–67.   Art and Industry in Saxon England, 278–304.   Life in Saxon England, 304–17.   The Normans in Europe, 317–33.

(The following source studies are based on the *The Library of Original Sources*, University Research Extension Company.)

Selections from Bede, Vol. IV, pp. 177–201; Anglo-Saxon Laws, pp. 209–39; Medieval trials, pp. 308–17; Saxons and Normans, pp. 383–89.

GENERAL TOPICS

Write in your note-books a comparison of Anglo-Saxon and Norman characteristics.   Draw the ground plan of a feudal castle.   What amusements had the people of England in the eleventh century?   Describe the social life of the well-to-do Saxons of this period as viewed by Scott in *Ivanhoe.*   (Although the book professes to deal with England in the twelfth century, the life of the people described was that of the eleventh.)   Read the description of the Roman Wall in Kipling's *Puck of Pook's Hill;* also of the Winged Hats (Northmen).   Methods of Agricola in his conquest of Britain.

REFERENCE READINGS

Colby, *Source-book of English History*, pp. 1–53: Longmans.
Kendall, *Source-book of English History*, pp. 1–55: Macmillan.
Cheyney, *Short History of England*, pp. 1–119: Ginn and Co.; also *Readings in English History*, pp. 1–120.
Krapp, *In Oldest England:* Longmans. (While quite elementary in character, yet it can be read by second year high-school students with profit.)
Beard, *Introduction to the English Historians*, pp. 1–77: Macmillan. (Valuable selections from the great historians.)
Shepherd, *Historical Atlas:* Physical Map of British Isles, p. 49; Roman Britain, p. 51; Settlements of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, p. 51; British Isles in the ninth and tenth centuries, p. 60; Dominions of Canute, p. 64; Dominions of William I, p. 65.
Tappan, *Historical Fiction.*   In the Days of William the Conqueror: Lothrop, Lee, & Shepherd Co.
Lytton, *Harold, the Last of the Saxons:* Little, Brown & Co.
Joyce, *Old Celtic Romances:* Longmans, Green & Co.

CHAPTER X

ENGLAND UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS

78. The Norman Kings and the Civil War. — William the Conqueror's sons, William II and Henry I, who successively reigned after him, did not impress their personalities strongly on English history. William II, called Rufus because of his ruddy complexion was as violent as his father, but lacked all of the Conqueror's points of strength. He quarrelled with his barons to the verge of civil war, and showed none of the statesmanship displayed by his father in his treatment of the church. His oppressive rule won him many enemies, and he was murdered while hunting.

Henry I's policy favored the mingling of races in England, a very desirable end to be attained. He set an example by marrying a descendant of Alfred the Great and in other ways endeavored to please the Saxons, who had chafed under the tyranny of William Rufus. His promise of a liberal government contained in a charter granted by him at his accession, augured a continuance of the strong government established by his father; while the friendly manner in which the question of investiture was settled in England nearly a generation before the Concordat of Worms (see p. 180), promised more cordial relations between church and state.

Yet the death of Henry plunged England into a state border- ing on anarchy. A civil war began between his daughter, Matilda, and her cousin, Stephen of Blois, over the right to the throne, and during the eighteen years that followed the governmental system went to pieces, the feudal lords usurped the king's powers, and new questions of dispute arose between

church and state. Finally the forces of Stephen were defeated by those of Matilda's faction and forced to agree to the Treaty of Wallingford, in which Stephen recognized Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son, as the heir to the English throne.

Henry II's Reforms

(1) Restoration of Order

79. **Henry II and the Reëstablishment of a Strong Government.** — When Henry II became king he had first to subdue the rebellious barons, who, contrary to the law, had erected strong castles without the king's consent. These Henry besieged and destroyed, and their owners he fined, banished, or
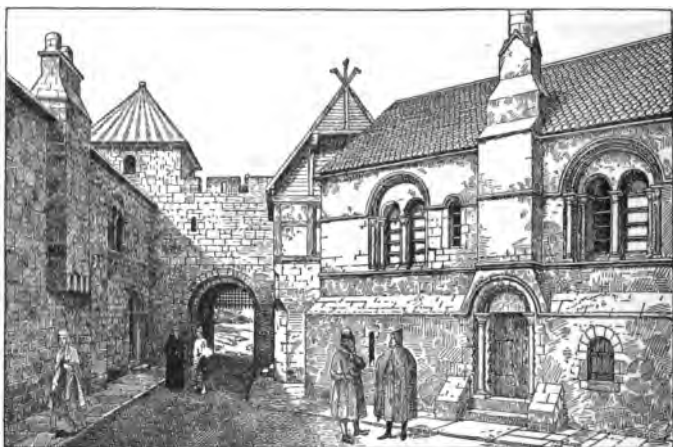
AN ENGLISH STREET IN THE REIGN OF HENRY II

(2) The Courts

Origin of Common Law

beheaded. Thus his power was felt throughout the land. He improved the system whereby the royal judges went from one important town to another to try cases. These circuit judges brought the king's justice directly to the people and saved the expense which the older system involved. The judgments handed down by the circuit courts made up the common law of England, and on that account are of the utmost importance as precedents for our own courts. During this reign may be found the beginnings of trial by jury. At a meeting of the Great Council at Clarendon, Henry issued the Assize or Law of

Clarendon which provided that a jury of twelve men, selected *Assize of Clarendon* from the locality in which the court was being held, should present to the judge the names of all persons suspected of having committed crime. In this law may be found the origin of the modern grand jury.

In the Assize of Arms, another important law, Henry II *(3) The Militia* ordered every freeman of England, whether noble, knight, or commoner, to furnish himself with a complete set of arms and equipments for war, suitable to his rank. In this way Henry organized a militia ready to take the field when called upon by the king. Many of Henry's constructive measures were intended *(4) Taxation* to increase the king's revenues. He enforced the payment of certain feudal dues, such as reliefs, or inheritance taxes, paid by an heir upon assuming his estate. He also levied a tax called scutage, in lieu of military service, which enabled him to pur- *Scutage* chase the assistance of mercenary troops when needed.

80. Henry II and Thomas Becket. — In his relations with the church, Henry II showed the same disposition to get more power into his hands. During the period of anarchy the church courts had assumed jurisdiction over many matters that are now controlled by the state. Henry begrudged the church the rich fees which poured into its coffers; furthermore, as clergymen accused of crime claimed trial in the church courts because these courts were composed of men of their own order, Henry felt that the church did not give sufficient recognition to the rights of his government. At length he called a great council at Clarendon (1164) to settle what matters should thereafter pertain to the church and what to the state. This council drew up the Constitutions of Clarendon, reissuing the *Constitutions of Clarendon* Statutes of Winchester of the reign of William I (see p. 214) and including new limitations upon the jurisdiction of the church courts, such as forbidding appeals from the English court to that of Rome and providing proper punishment for clergymen convicted of crime.

The quarrel between Henry II and his great archbishop of

Thomas Becket

Canterbury over these provisions of the Constitutions of Clarendon is one of the most thrilling and tragic stories in history. Before his elevation to the primacy Thomas Becket had served Henry in various government offices, among them that of chancellor. He had been a most worldly man but after he had reluctantly accepted the archbishopric he changed suddenly into an austere, high-minded clergyman, full of enthusiasm for the church and as eager to promote its temporal power as Gregory VII had been. While chancellor he had been a warm friend of Henry, but as archbishop he was unwilling to recognize that the king had the powers over the church stated in the Constitutions of Clarendon. Instead, he appealed to the pope to annul these laws, and thus violated one of their most important provisions. By this appeal he defied the power of the king, and as England became unsafe for him, he was forced to take refuge at the court of the French king, who was hostile to Henry.[1]

Murder of Becket

Six years later, a temporary reconciliation having been made with the king, Becket returned to England, where by excommunicating without the king's consent the church officials who disagreed with him, he showed that he had not changed his ideas concerning the powers of the church. Henry is said to have exclaimed wrathfully, " Will no one rid me of this pestilent priest! " whereat, taking the saying of a moment of passion for royal permission, four knights set forth for Canterbury, where they murdered the archbishop before his own altar. Henry II expressed the utmost remorse and horror at the deed, and in atonement relinquished several of the rights he had claimed and against which Becket had protested. The English people believed the murdered archbishop a saint, and thousands made annual pilgrimages to his tomb at Canterbury.

Problems of the Capetian Rulers

81. Struggle between the Angevins and Capetians for Supremacy in France. — While the kings of England had been

[1] Henry had recently married the Duchess Eleanor of Guienne and Gascony, whom the French king had divorced a short time before.

overthrowing opposition at home and building up a strong
government, the French kings had found the feudal barons
almost too strong for them.   William I's conquest of England
and the Salisbury Oath had made him the master of English
soil and the absolute lord of his great vassals; whereas in

CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL

Here, east of the High Altar, Becket's shrine, or tomb, was erected.
Until the Reformation it was a place of pilgrimage to which came thou-
sands, not only from England, but also from Europe.   It was despoiled
by Henry VIII.   Becket was murdered in one of the transepts of the
cathedral.

France, the king had little power.   After the decline of the
Carolingian family, the great landholders had chosen one of
their own number, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, to be their   987 A.D.
ruler, and although he and his descendants were able men, the
barons of France considered the Capetians equals not superiors,
and refused to render them obedience like to that paid the Eng-
lish monarchs.   For this reason the French kings had a harder

struggle to win true sovereignty over their realm than did the Norman rulers of England. Furthermore, for a hundred years it was a serious problem whether or not some French lord of lands wealthier and more extensive than the hereditary possessions of the Capetian family, would overthrow its shadowy sovereignty and establish a new dynasty. Among the powerful vassals of France were the dukes of Normandy and the counts of Flanders and of Brittany in the north, and the dukes of Guienne and of Burgundy in the south. Between their possessions were a number of small states, among them the territory of France ruled by the Capetians. When the dukes of Normandy conquered England, their French fiefs, for a time, seemed ˙of second importance to the island realm; and with these powerful vassals removed from active intrigue in French politics, the French kings must have felt encouraged in their struggle for real sovereignty.

Possessions of Henry II

This hope was for a time seriously threatened by the growth of a new combination of vassal states hostile to the French king. Henry II was recognized as ruler of England by the Treaty of Wallingford (see p. 222) and inherited also from his mother lordship over Normandy and Maine, and from his father Anjou and Touraine. By his marriage to Eleanor, the divorced wife of the French king, he gained control over her hereditary lands of Guienne, Gascony, and Poitou; and by conquest he held Brittany and the Irish Pale, or eastern coast of Ireland. He also forced the king of Scotland to sign the Treaty of Falaise, recognizing Henry as his overlord. Henry's possessions in France overshadowed those of the French king, while the total Angevin[1] domain formed a state of imposing size. Yet for the lands in France, Henry was nominally the vassal of King Philip Augustus (the same who later led the Third Crusade). Philip was able to defend himself against the

[1] The term Angevin is applied to the noble family of Anjou, whose badge was the cornflower (plantagenet). Henry II and his descendants are called Angevins or Plantagenets.
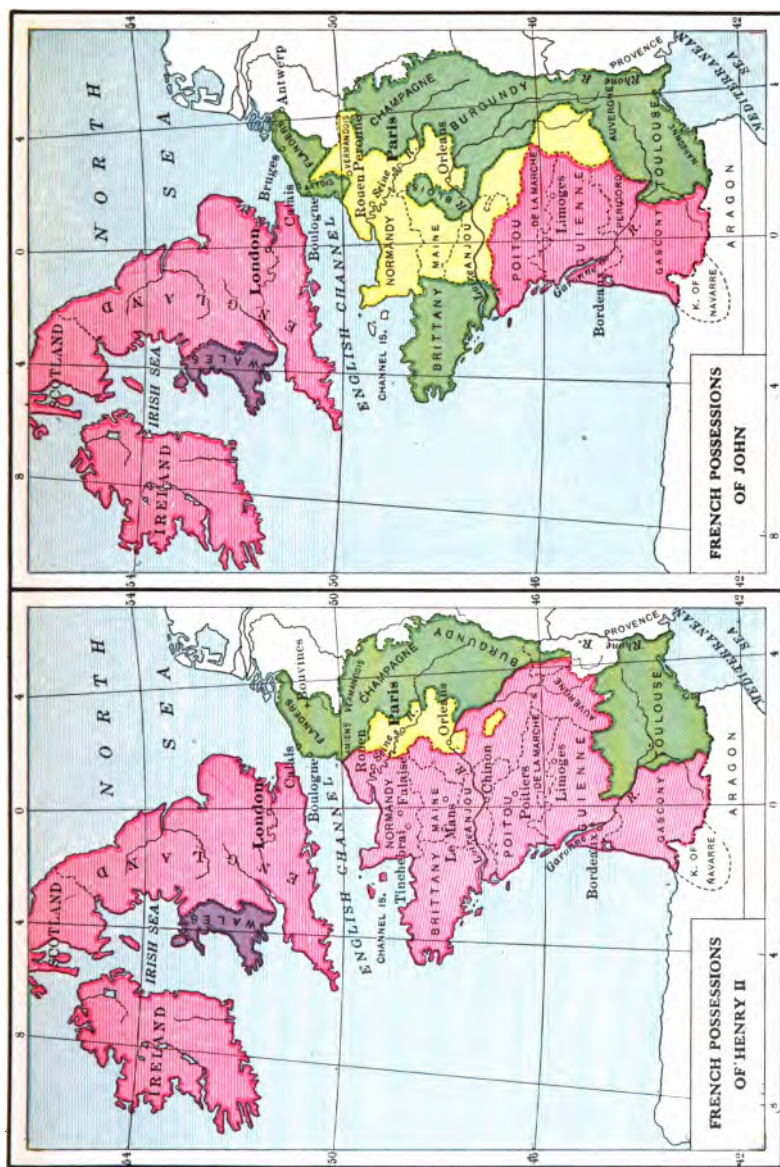
THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE ANGEVINS AND THE CAPETIANS

Angevin lands—pink; Capetian lands—yellow; Independent French fiefs—green.
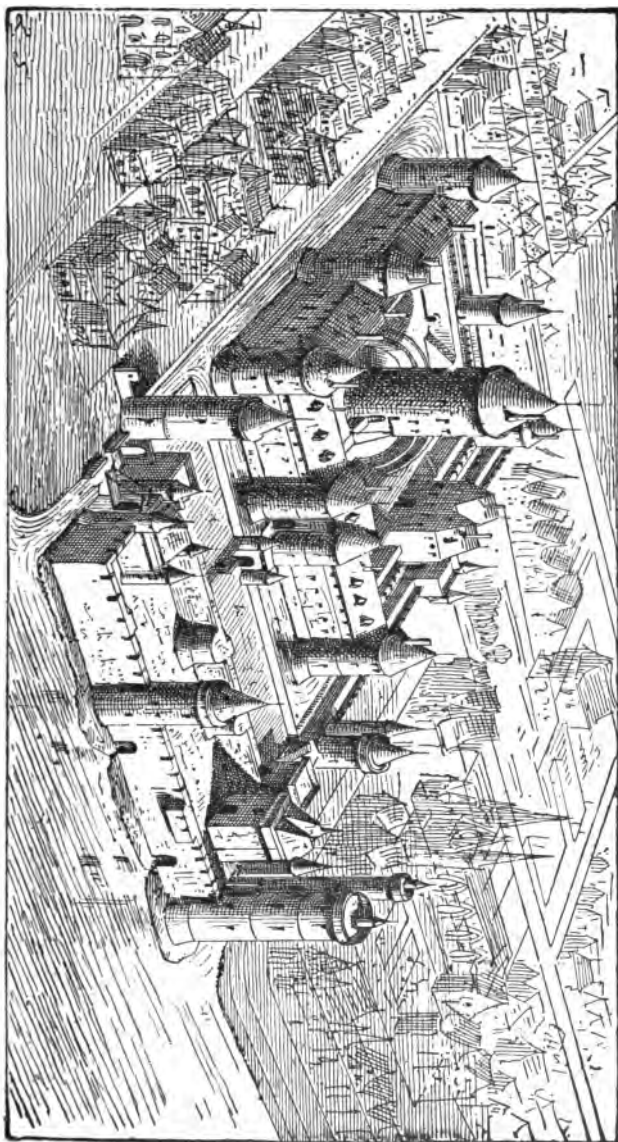
VIEW OF PARIS IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

ambition of so powerful a vassal chiefly because Henry intrusted the administration of his French possessions to his sons. Philip craftily stirred up jealousy between these brothers, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, and prevented them from acting together or with the old King Henry. Before many years had passed Philip had won back many of the French fiefs governed by Henry.

Centralization of the French Monarchy

During the reigns of Philip Augustus and his son, Louis VIII, the domain of the French kings was greatly increased at the expense of the English rulers and of other vassals, and the sovereignty of the king of France over his powerful landholders was established. The administrative system was also much improved.

Philip found that the provosts, the officials who administered justice in his name, collected his taxes, and preserved order, had come to regard their office as a hereditary right and were insolent and disobedient. Accordingly, he redivided his possessions into a number of large bailiwicks, each of which included the lands supervised by several of the provosts. Over each bailiwick he placed a new officer, the baillie, who was required to make frequent and complete reports to the king concerning the state of affairs in his bailwick. He also was required to hold court every month in order to see that justice was done every man. Another important duty was to collect all the money possible and see that it was delivered to the king at Paris.   Thus it will be seen that the reign of Philip II was an important one for France, because of the great extension of territory ruled directly by the king, and because of the better administration of the government.

St. Louis

The grandson of Philip, Louis IX, is known as St. Louis because of the high principles upon which he conducted his life and rule. Few rulers have been so thoroughly guided by the teachings of their religion as was he. His sincerity and honesty won for him the reputation of absolute justice, and many disputes between his contemporary sovereign were therefore referred to him for arbitration. With all his piety he was a

manly ruler, and loved amusements of his day. He completed
the work begun by his grandfather in organizing the administra-
tion. For example, he reintroduced the missi system of Charle-
magne (see p. 163) to supervise the baillies. He also divided
the officers of his court into three divisions, each having a dis-
tinct function. The first, the council, had charge of the admin-
istration; the second, took care of the finances; and the third,
the *parlement*,[1] acted as the supreme court of France and was
located in Paris. This systemization of the government made
it easier for the king to carry on the affairs of state, and in-
creased the respect felt by the people of France for their ruler.

The last years of the reign of Henry II were made bitter by   Close of the
the quarrels which he had with his own family. He died in   Reign of
France while on a campaign against his sons. Defeated by   Henry II
them, and forced to sue for peace, he was shown a list containing
the names of the conspirators against him. At its head was the
name of his favorite son, John. " Now," said he bitterly, " let
things go as they will — I care no more for myself or for the
world." His last words were, " Shame, shame on a conquered
king! " He had brought order out of anarchy in England, he
had governed his realm wisely, if strictly, but he had failed to
govern his own family, and he must have foreseen the doom of
its fortunes in France.

Henry II was succeeded by his son, Richard I, who spent all.   Richard
but a few months of his ten years' reign fighting on the continent   Lionheart
or in the Third Crusade, so that England saw little of him.
Richard possessed much of his father's military ability, but
lacked his determination and strength of character; hence he
has been well called " Richard-Yea-Nay." He is more familiarly
known as Coeur-de-Lion, or Lionheart, because of his brave ex-
ploits in the Crusades. He was killed in battle shortly after his
rescue from the prison of the Emperor Henry VI. (See p. 182.)

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[1] The difference between the parlement, or judicial court of France,
and the English parliament, or law-making body, must be carefully under-
stood.

The story of " Ivanhoe " gives a fairly accurate description of the character of Richard's successor, his brother John, one of the worst rulers England has ever had. John was suspected of the murder of his brother Geoffrey's son, Prince Arthur, in order to clear his own way to the English throne. He had, moreover, abducted a ward of the French king. For these crimes John was commanded to appear at his suzerain's court to stand trial, and upon his failure to attend, Philip Augustus declared John's French fiefs forfeited to the French crown.[1] Thus was decided the rivalry between the Angevins and the Capetians in France.

82. Magna Carta. — John did not realize that he had really lost his heritage in France, and marshalled his forces for a war. But when he attempted to lead the barons out of England, they rebelled, under the leadership of Stephen Langton, Pope Innocent III's nominee for the archbishopric of Canterbury. (See p. 188). John was forced to sign at Runnymede, in 1215, a written promise, known as the Great Charter, or Magna Carta, to deal justly with them in the future. This charter forms an important part of the British constitution and has been called the Bible of English liberty. The following provisions of Magna Carta are of especial importance: first, no freeman shall be imprisoned or punished, except by the legal judgment of his peers (equals); second, justice shall not be delayed or sold; third, no scutage or aid (except the three great aids) (see p. 171) shall be imposed by the king without the consent of the great council; fourth, the towns and cities of England shall enjoy all the rights conferred upon them by the king of England; fifth, merchants coming and going through England shall have the protection of the government in carrying on their business.

The first insured a fair trial for an accused person, and in later times was reënacted to prevent tyrannical rulers from holding in prison, without trial, persons who had offended them. The

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[1] Only Guienne and Gascony remained to the English rulers of their once wide realm in France.

second was a guarantee of the integrity of the English courts. The third is the first statement in English history of the principle involved in the rallying cry of the American Revolution, " No taxation without representation." The fourth protected the towns in the rights stated in charters won from the king, and thus enabled them to become the teachers of the people along the lines of self-government. The fifth recognized the rights of the merchant class, hitherto oppressed and robbed by the feudal lords.

Some modern authorities believe that too much importance has been attached in the past to these promises made by John, and argue that they were made to one class of people only, the upper class, and also that John's immediate successors disregarded them in whole or in part. Yet it must not be overlooked that Magna Carta represents the result of a revolt against the arbitrary rule of a cruel and corrupt king, and that all classes were finally benefited by it, because it furnished the source for later and more successful attempts to obtain popular government. " The Great Charter is the first great public act of the nation after it had realized its own identity, the consummation of the work for which unconsciously kings, prelates, and lawyers have been laboring for a century. There is not a word in it that recalls the distinction of race and blood, or that maintains the differences of English and Norman law. It is in one view the summing up of a period of national life, in another the starting point of a new period, not less eventful than that which it closes." (Stubbs.) *Importance of Magna Carta*

83. The Birth of the House of Commons. — John's son and successor, Henry III, was very fond of foreigners, especially the people of southern France and of Flanders. The personality or character of Henry is of little interest, yet his long reign was a very important period in English history. England suffered considerably from civil warfare due to the weakness of Henry's character, yet considerable gain was made along artistic, political, and commercial lines. *Influence of Henry III's Reign*

The people of southern France were the most artistic and liter-
ary of the time.   Their troubadours, or poet minstrels, composed
beautiful poems and witty stories, and their architects brought
into England the new Gothic style of building which, in grace-
fulness of line and in beauty of decoration, was greatly superior
to that of Norman times.   But the favor shown these men of

A FIGHT BETWEEN ARMED AND MOUNTED KNIGHTS OF THE TIME
OF HENRY III

southern France by the king aroused the suspicion and jealousy
of his barons and a long and bloody civil war resulted.

The civil wars between Henry III and his barons led to the
calling together of the first English parliament, first in the
modern sense in which representatives of the common people
share with the nobles in law-making.   Simon de Montfort, the
leader of the barons, issued a call for two knights from each
shire and two citizens from each town of England to meet in a
great council with the representatives of the lords spiritual and
temporal.   Although this innovation was not made a regular
custom until the reign of Henry's son, we may say that the
House of Commons was born in this reign.

Growth of the Wool Trade   Henry's subjects complained that he was too much under the
influence of foreign churchmen.   He gave them land upon which

to found monasteries, and filled the state offices with French prelates. The Carthusian monks built up the sheep-raising industry in the eastern part of England, and England speedily became the greatest wool-producing nation of Europe, furnishing the bulk of the wool imported by the manufacturing towns of Flanders. This trade greatly benefited England from a commercial standpoint and exerted a profound influence upon

STREET IN THE TIME OF EDWARD I

the later history of England.[1] Kings found that by laying an export tax on wool they could obtain an income which would render them independent of parliament, and yet parliament later claimed and exercised almost complete control over internal taxation, basing its claim upon the third quoted clause of Magna Carta. The importance of the wool trade is shown by the fact that the presiding officer of the House of Lords sits upon a cushion stuffed with English wool to show that the dignity and power of English commercial supremacy was founded upon

[1] The wool trade led to a long and disastrous war with France, which began in the reign of Henry III's great-grandson and lasted for over a hundred years. (See p. 268.)

this industry. Even to-day the office of chancellor is occasionally called the " woolsack " in memory of the long-lost monopoly.

84. Reign of Edward I. — The son of Henry III, Edward I, is called the English Justinian and the Hammer of the Scots. Following the example of Justinian (see p. 145), that famous Roman law-codifier, Edward issued many important statutes. He ordered that the highways should be kept clear from underbrush on both sides, in order that travel might be made easier and safer from the attacks of highwaymen, who had formerly lain in wait in the shadow of the roadside bushes. By the statute of "Hue-and-Cry and Watch-and-Ward" he required all men to assist in the capture of criminals, and ordered each town to provide suitable police protection.

Another law forbade the granting of lands to the church in order to escape the king's tax-gatherers, a practice that had added some of the fairest of English estates to the non-taxable lands of the church, and which had materially diminished the king's taxes on real estate.

Edward found several new ways to increase his revenues. For example, he collected an export tax on wool, called poundage, and an import tax upon wine, called tonnage. These are the first instances of national tariffs. Furthermore, he required every man whose property was worth about twenty pounds or more a year to enter the rank of knighthood or else pay a heavy fine. This custom was called distraint of knighthood. In order to please his barons, who were heavily indebted to the Jews, he issued an order banishing that race from England, and received in return many valuable gifts from his nobles.

The attempts of former rulers of England to conquer all the territory of the British Isles had won only the Irish Pale and a shadowy overlordship over Scotland. After a series of difficult campaigns in the mountain fastnesses of Wales, Edward secured the recognition of his son as Prince of Wales, a title ever since borne by the heir to the British throne. During his reign a dispute arose between the families of Baliol and Bruce over the

The English Justinian

Statute of Highways

Police Statutes

Statute against " Mortmain "

Financial Measures

Conquest of Scotland

ENGLAND, WALES,
SCOTLAND and
IRELAND
Time of EDWARD I.

SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140

succession to the throne of Scotland. Asserting the right of overlordship, gained in the Treaty of Falaise between Henry II and the Scotch king (see p. 226), Edward judged the merits of the various contestants at Norham and awarded the crown to Baliol, whom he expected to be able to control. When Baliol showed signs of an independent spirit, Edward removed him and proclaimed the annexation of Scotland to England. During the last years of his reign he was greatly disturbed by efforts to regain independence for Scotland, led first by Sir William Wallace, a Scotch border patriot, and later and more successfully by Robert Bruce, a descendant of the former claimant.

After Edward's death his son, the weak and incompetent Edward II, was defeated at the battle of Bannockburn in 1314 by Bruce and forced to acknowledge the independence of Scotland. After a disastrous reign of 20 years, with the approval of parliament, Edward II was deposed in the name of his son and imprisoned in a tower, where shortly afterwards he was murdered. This reign is important constitutionally because during it the knights and burgesses met apart from the nobles,

Reign of
Edward II

CORONATION CHAIR, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Under the seat of the coronation chair rests the famous Stone of Scone. This stone on which the Scotch kings were crowned was taken to England by Edward I. With the accession to the English throne of James VI of Scotland, and the union of the two countries, a Scotch King was once more crowned on the Scone.

thus setting a precedent for the two-chambered, or bicameral, legislature which is such a familiar feature of nearly all modern constitutional governments, including those of our states and nation.

85. Summary of Plantagenet England. — Henry II weakened the power of the feudal lords and established a good system of courts, which enabled him to maintain order and to make the royal power felt throughout England. He made a strong effort to extend his authority over the church, but was forced to make concessions after the murder of his former favorite, Becket. The French Capetian house struggled for over a century to curb the power of the great landholders of France, of whom the English king was the chief. Owing to dissensions in the family of Henry II and to the weak character of John, Philip Augustus was able to bring under his own rule several of the great fiefs. Thereupon the French rulers proceeded to consolidate and reform the government of France. In addition to losing the French territory John was defeated in a struggle with the papacy and with his barons, and as a result the English world was given Magna Carta, which checked the growing absolutism of the monarch. During the long reign of Henry III, England's greatest industry began to assume importance, and great changes took place in the intellectual and artistic life of the country. By the reign of Edward I, England was emerging into the light of the modern period, in language, race, and the outward elements of government. Edward, as the English Justinian, made many good laws to maintain order and to strengthen the government; as the Hammer of the Scots he brought Scotland under his sway. His son lost Scotland and died ignominiously. The House of Commons is the greatest constitutional gain of this period.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR
FURTHER STUDY

Write in your note-books a summary of all relations between the papacy and English sovereigns during the reigns of William I, William II, Henry I, Henry II, John, Henry III, and Edward I.   On an outline map of northern Europe (England and France) show the possessions of Henry II, coloring differently the fiefs obtained in various manners.   Show the actual possessions of the kings of France at the beginning and at the close of the period covered by this chapter.

(The following topics may be found in Cheyney's *Readings*.)

Extracts from the Assize of Arms, 143.   Account of Becket's Magnificence as Chancellor, 143–145.   The Council and Constitutions of Clarendon, 146–150.   Account of the Murder of Becket, 155–159.   Miracles of St. Thomas, 160–164.   The Interdict in the Reign of John, 177–178.

(The following topics may be found in Hill's *Liberty Documents: Longmans*.)   Read the complete text of Magna Carta, 9–25.   Put in your note-books a striking phrase of characterization from five different authors quoted in the "critical comment," 27–33.

(The following topics may be found in Beard's *English Historians*.)

The First Dispute between Becket and the King, 98, § 4.   The Church-State Quarrel, 99, §§3–5.   Henry II as Administrator, 108, §10.   (These are taken from Stubbs.)   The Origin of the English Parliament, 124, §§1–7.   The Powers of Parliament, §§10–12.

(The following topics are treated in Tuell and Hatch, *Readings in English History:* Ginn.)

Description of Henry II, pp. 55–59; Henry II and Becket, pp. 59–70; Portrait of Richard I, pp. 70–71.   The Winning of the Great Charter, pp. 74–83.   The Great Charter, pp. 83–87.   Significance of Magna Carta, pp. 87–89.   Simon de Montfort, pp. 89–92.   Bruce's Address to his army at Bannockburn, pp. 145–47.

(The following source studies are based on the *Library of Original Sources*, University Research Extension Company.)

Assize of Clarendon, Vol. IV, pp. 397–400.   Magna Carta, pp. 401–12.

FURTHER READINGS

Cheyney, *Short History of England*, pp. 144–229; *Readings in English History*, pp. 137–232.
Kendall, *Source-book*, pp. 56–91.
Bemont and Monod, *Mediæval Europe*, pp. 404–413.
Emerton, *Mediæval Europe*, The Growth of the French Monarchy, pp. 400–33.

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas:* Europe about 1190, pp. 70–71; British Isles about 1300, p. 74; Plan of London about 1300, p. 75; Vicinity of London 1200, p. 75

.Munro and Sellery, *Medieval Civilization:* Century. St. Louis of France, pp. 491–523; Advice of St. Louis to his son, pp. 566–75.

CHAPTER XI

LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

86. Life on the Manor. — During the middle ages most of the population of Europe lived in the country, and yet all country life was village life. To reconcile these apparently contra-

Manorial or Open Field Agriculture
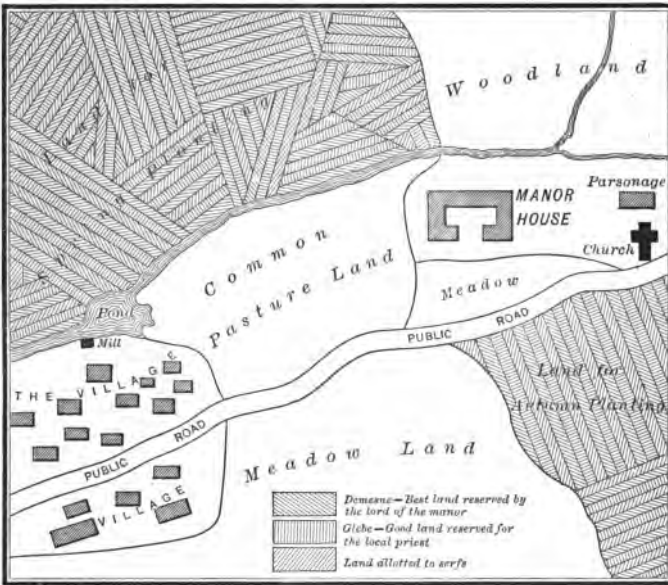
PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL MANOR

dictory statements it is necessary to study the manor and its system. Although there were many flourishing towns and cities, yet by far the greater number of people lived on manors, or large country estates owned by influential property holders.

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These lords of the manor, who were not necessarily lords in the sense of being of noble birth, reserved choice portions of land for their own and compelled the peasants to work for them. The rest of the land, which consisted of: (1) arable land, divided into two, sometimes three, great open fields separated into small parcels, parted from each other by unploughed strips of turf, called balks, instead of by fences; (2) commons, land used for pasturage; (3) lot meadows, land reserved for growing hay, and divided in the same manner as the arable land; (4) woods and wastes, moorland, marsh and hillside. Each peasant cultivated for himself about thirty acres, which were scattered through the arable fields, and meadows. (See map of manor).

· The small, single-roomed hovels of the peasants were made of clay without flooring, ceiling, or chimney. The furniture and tools of a peasant consisted of a few pots and pans, two or three dishes and cups, a three-legged stool or so, and an axe. Even as late as the sixteenth century a foreigner observed that " the peasants live in small huts and pile up their refuse out of doors in heaps so high that you cannot see their houses." It is no wonder that plagues were frequent and " slew the people like flies." The manor house, or home of the lord of the manor, was a little more comfortable. It contained a large hall with one or two smaller rooms. Nearby were barns, storage buildings, and, in some cases, quarters for the lord's personal attendants. Near it stood the parish church, the priest's house, or parsonage, and the manor smithy and mill. This group of buildings together with the peasants' huts was called a vill, and from it the peasants went forth daily to work in the fields, returning weary at night.

The Serfs   Although a few of these peasant farmers were freemen, most were in a servile state. They were unable to leave the manor without their lord's consent, and were forced to give him service in the form of days' work in his fields, as well as a percentage of the crops taken from their own scanty acres. By examining a list of manor dues, some understanding of the employments

on the manor may be gained. One list reads as follows: " John
of Cayworth holds a house and thirty acres of land, and owes
yearly two shillings at Easter and Michaelmas [September 29],

PLOUGHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY
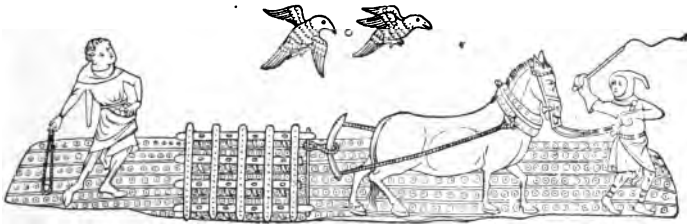
HARROWING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

REAPING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

and he owes a cock and two hens at Christmas. He should
harrow for two days during the Lenten sowing with a man and his
own horse and harrow; he should provide one man for two
days' mowing his lord's meadow, and gather in that same hay
which he has cut; he should in autumn gather beans or oats for
two days with a cart and three horses of his own; and he should

carry wood from the lord's wood land, as far as the manor house, for two days in summer with a cart and three horses of his own."

Manor Life

While the man performed these services his wife and daughters aided in the spinning, weaving, and other necessary work at the manor house. In all, they worked for the benefit of the lord more than half the time, and were obliged to labor from daybreak to dusk in order to earn the coarse fare of black bread and beans upon which they subsisted. The life of the serf was lacking in almost all the comforts and pleasures that make up so large a part of the life of the modern workman; yet it must not be supposed that he was entirely unhappy. Much amusement was gained from the rude merrymakings which occasionally brought the people of the manor together, and it must be remembered that a man cannot miss a happiness of whose existence he has never dreamed.

Free Tenants

Not all the peasant farmers were serfs; some were free tenants, whose dues were paid principally in money, and who were free from many of the exasperating restraints imposed on serfs, and therefore had more interest in getting ahead in the world by improving their methods of cultivating the fields and by inventing better implements with which to work.

Two Reasons for the Decline of Serfdom

(1) Growth of Population

As the population increased, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it became constantly more difficult for the serf, who employed the old methods, to produce enough to satisfy the demands of his lord and at the same time to support his family. The serfs suffered, on this account, from famine and from the pestilence which almost always follows famine; and driven to desperation, they revolted from carrying on life in the same old way. Many of them secured recognition as free tenants, paid their lord in money instead of in service, and thus passed gradually from the servile relation into the modern one of renter.

(2) Increase of Money in Circulation

That they were enabled to do this was due to the great increase in the amount of money in circulation, caused by the revival of commerce and by the growth of manufacturing in the towns. When the townsmen turned themselves more and more

to manufacturing and abandoned their attempts at producing what food they needed for their own use, it became necessary for them to buy of the manors the grain and other foods there grown. They paid the manor folk in the money which began at this time to flow into the towns in return for the articles made there and sold abroad. The lords were glad to obtain money instead of service from the serfs, because with it the

THRESHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

means was given to purchase the luxuries and other articles which their manors did not produce.

87. Life in the Towns. — Medieval towns originated in various ways. Some were a continuation of town life under the Roman empire; others grew out of manor villages; in some instances they were founded by other towns for trading centers, or by landowners for the sake of the added revenue to be gained from taxing the citizens; and some grew up around important monasteries and castles. The more important towns were protected by walls and other defences against invaders. As the town increased in population quaint buildings,

Origin of Medieval Towns

with stories each projecting over its lower neighbors, darkened and crowded the alley-like streets, which turned and twisted their unpaved way, filled with mud and filth and the debris of garbage. Few towns had any system of sewers, the dirty water from the houses frequently splashing down upon the heads of unsuspecting passers-by. The lighting systems were so feeble, where any such thing was attempted, that when night fell the shops were all shuttered tightly, all doors were closed

STREET IN THE TIME OF RICHARD III

and barred, and even the streets themselves were closed off by heavy chains, because of the dangerous condition of the times, when footpads and cutthroats abounded in the darkness. " The houses of the richer merchants vied in comfort and luxury with castles of the nobles. At the back there were gardens filled with flowers, and the best room opened upon these gardens. Each shopkeeper hung out his sign with some device representing his trade, for few could read. At dawn the shutters were taken down and the streets were filled with people. Venders of food and dealers in miscellaneous articles went about crying their wares. Fights between the apprentices of the different

Description of a Medieval Town from Dr. Munro's " A History of the Middle Ages "

trades were frequent.   Each industry had its own quarter, from
which the workmen would sally forth to attack those of another
quarter, or in which they could in turn barricade themselves."

From a position of practical servitude to the lord, upon whose   Growth of
lands they were situated, the towns advanced by the end of the   Political
middle ages to one of almost complete political independence.   Independence
This revolution was accomplished by the pressure brought to   of the Towns
bear upon the lord by his townsmen when he wanted money.

A RECEPTION IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD IV

To secure funds for a military venture, or for the gratification   Town
of other whims, the lord was often induced to sell to a town   Charters
certain rights embodied in a town charter.   As time went on,
other rights were gained by the town, such as exemption from
certain forms of feudal taxation and greater liberty of self-gov-
ernment.   The charters were granted to an organization of the
leading men of the town, called a commune, which was much like
the Committee of Public Safety organized just before the Revo-
lutionary War in Boston and other American cities to resist the
British.

Often the leading citizens engaged in trade, formed what is called a merchant's gild, which resembled the merchants' associations or boards of trade of our cities. These merchant gilds usually controlled the government of the commune. Other gilds known as craft or trade gilds, which developed somewhat late in medieval times, were composed of all the men engaged in particular trades. These resembled our trade unions, in that they were formed to promote particular industries by increasing prices and maintaining standards of excellence in workmanship; but they differed widely from unions in that they were composed of both employers and employees of that trade. The craft gilds governed their members by an elaborate system of rules and exerted both a good and a harmful influence upon commerce and industry. The rule requiring all the products of their workmen to be up to a certain standard was in the main a good one; yet it prevented the creation of still more beautiful and useful articles. Another rule, governing the length of service necessary before admittance into all the rights and privileges of the gild, tended to make careful workmen, but at the same time to discourage many from attempting to improve their lot in life.

The gild system may be briefly described as follows. There were three grades of workmen: the apprentice, the journeyman and the master workman. After an apprenticeship of from three to ten years, the workman entered the grade of journeyman; that is, he was sent forth from his own shop to visit those of other master workmen, in order that he might learn their methods and designs. After a suitable time as journeyman, if the other masters of his craft were willing, he might set up a shop of his own and employ other apprentices and journeymen. Perhaps the greatest service rendered by the gild was the added strength given the cause of town liberty by these groups of men who had learned to work together in a common cause.

88. Medieval Commerce. — As the gilds developed, commerce became of greater importance. The peoples of the East

were interested in marketing some of their spices and silks in western Europe, and also found uses for some of the Western manufactures, such as woollen goods.   Commerce and industry interact on each other; yet commerce grew very slowly be-
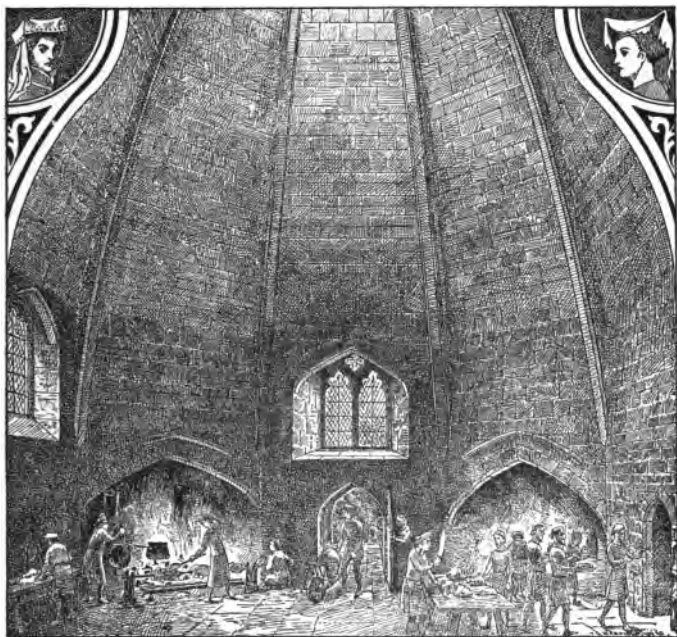
A FOURTEENTH CENTURY KITCHEN IN ENGLAND

The existing abbot's kitchen at Glastonbury is the authority for this drawing.   The building is about 36 feet square with four fireplaces.

cause of the many hindrances to it.   The idea of gain from **Usury** commerce was regarded with displeasure by the medieval church, whereas the cultivation of the soil and the development of the business of renting land were held to be highly proper. We now understand that gold is a commodity, and can be bought and sold just as well as other goods, and that interest on money is merely the profit of such transactions; but in the middle

ages the taking of interest on money seemed sinful, hence interest, or usury, was forbidden to all church members. The medieval churchman did not care for the souls of the Jews, so that oppressed and wonderful people were permitted and even encouraged to take up the business of lending money out at interest, but were forced to protect their loans and safeguard their property by every possible

HUDSON RIVER FROM NEW YORK TO TROY Same Scale as Loire River

RIVER LOIRE FROM ORLEANS TO THE SEA   Scale of Miles
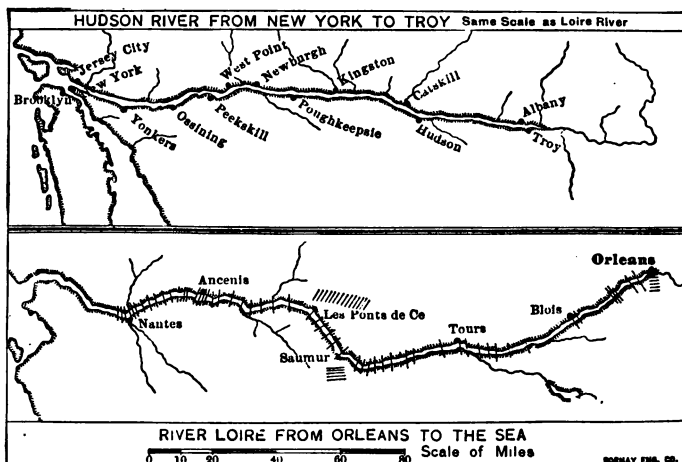
COMPARATIVE MAPS SHOWING THE HINDRANCES TO MEDIEVAL
COMMERCE

The lines across the Loire show where tolls were collected. If the old toll system were in force to-day we would pay fifty tolls going from New York city to Albany — the same distance as from Nantes to Orleans.

means. It is not strange that Shakespeare made Shylock the type of man that he did. This very persecution made of the Jewish race a people extremely gifted along financial lines and destined to that high position in the economic world that they to-day possess.

Forestalling   Another familiar feature of present commercial life was abhorred in the middle ages. The man who buys up the supply of some certain article, or, as we say, " corners it,"

TRADE ROUTES
OF THE MIDDLE AGES

Water Routes ▬▬▬▬ Land Routes ▬▬▬▬

SCALE ALONG THE EQUATOR
0   500   1000   1500   2000
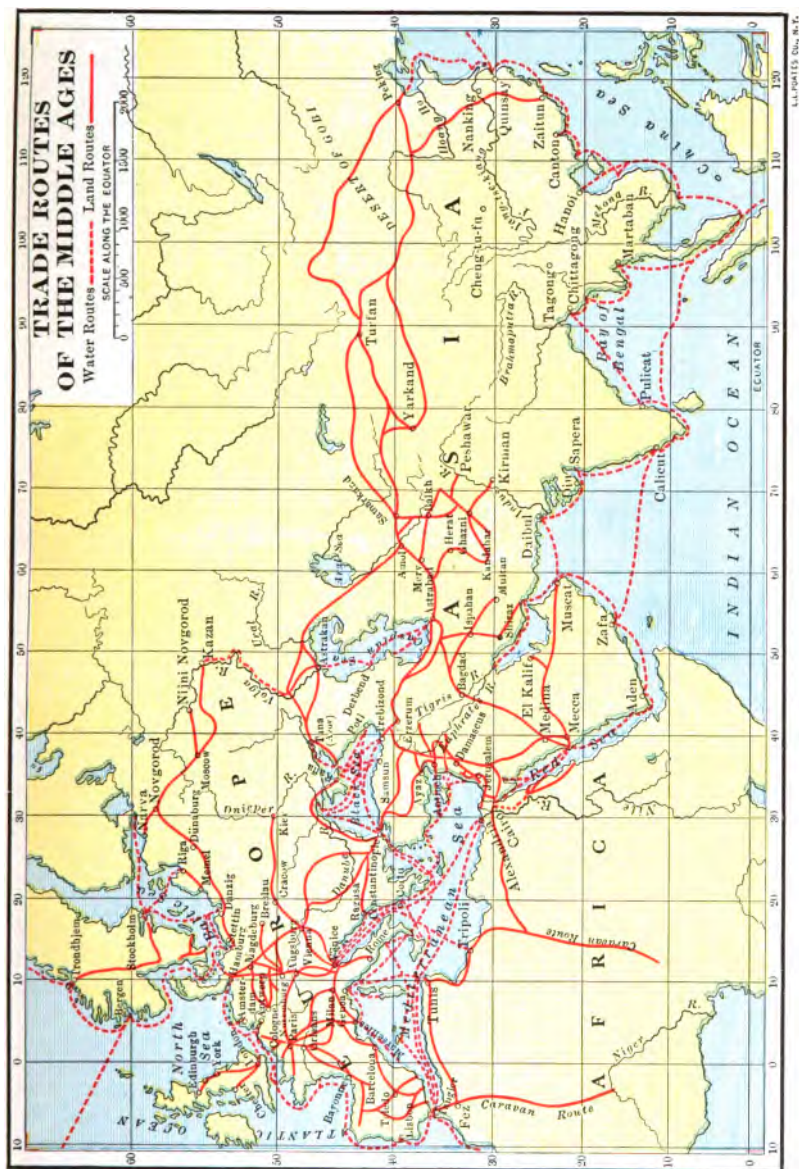
in order that he may sell at an advance, would in the middle ages, have been punished heavily, on the ground that he was taking advantage of his fellowman. This was called "forestalling the market." But the medieval attitude toward forstalling discouraged wholesalers and tended to limit commerce.

A hindrance to commerce in the middle ages was the unequal **Tariffs** and unjust system of tariffs in force. Each small landholder had the right to levy a slight tax on goods passing through his territories. For this reason merchants were constantly delayed at points along their route and lost a large amount of their profit into the bargain.[1] The medieval merchants often con- **Danger of** tended with robbers, who took from them their valuables, and **Loss** with pirates, who overhauled them on the seas. If the ship containing their goods was unfortunately wrecked, all its contents were, by the inhuman strand laws of those days, adjudged to belong to the lord of the lands upon whose shores it had gone to pieces.

In spite of these restrictions, commerce grew. Leagues of **Town** towns sprang up, whose objects were to punish the robbers **Leagues** on sea and land and to strengthen the hands of the merchants in every way possible. One of these, the Hansa or Hanseatic League, composed of over sixty important commercial cities of Europe, from Novgorod, in far-away Russia, to London, England, was able to wage war on kings and to render the interests of a single merchant of one of its towns as safe as those of a Roman citizen in the fairest days of the empire. Great fairs were held at many of the important towns, to which mer- **Fairs** chants and citizens flocked from every quarter. These served not only as promoters of commerce and industry, but of general culture as well. Great argosies of merchant ships sailed forth

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[1] It is true that most of the tariffs were known beforehand and could be estimated into the price of the article sold by the merchant, thus forcing the "ultimate consumer" to pay the tax; yet with perishable articles in stock, the merchant would often lose all the money he invested in it.

under the convoy of men-of-war of the leagues or of the great princes, and little by little the wealthier merchants usurped the places of the former nobility in the contest for luxurious living and political importance.

89. Medieval Art and Architecture. — Although the houses of the wealthier merchants were far from possessing the comforts of the humblest modern
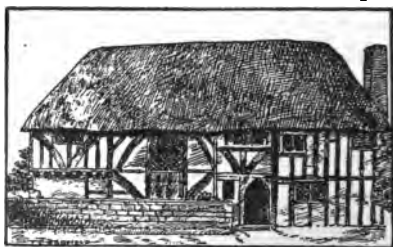
OLD CLERGY HOUSE, ALFRISTON

dwellings, yet in certain ways they were much finer. The furniture, while scanty, was of the finest and heaviest woods,
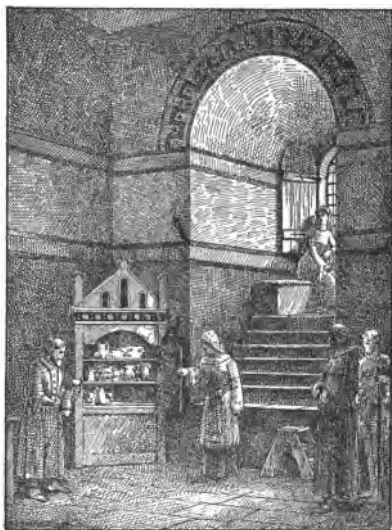
A CORNER IN THE HALL OF THE KEEP OF KENILWORTH CASTLE

carved in beautiful designs, and upon the massive dining table, silver and even gold dishes showed the wealth and importance of their owners. The windows were small, with tiny panes of glass set in lead, for glass was an expensive luxury. Upon the walls hung costly tapestries, brought from the East, or else embroidered by the fingers of European peasants. Such a tapestry was made by the Saxon serving women of the Conqueror's queen, on which is outlined in quaint colors the whole tragic

story of Harold and William.[1]   In heating, lighting, and plumb-
ing, the medieval houses could not compare with a modern
cottage.   The manor houses varied greatly in size and appoint-
ments, from a magnificence as great as that of the town
houses to the squalor of the one-roomed peasant home.   In
the smaller dwellings no arrangement was made to separate
the domestic animals from the human members of the house-
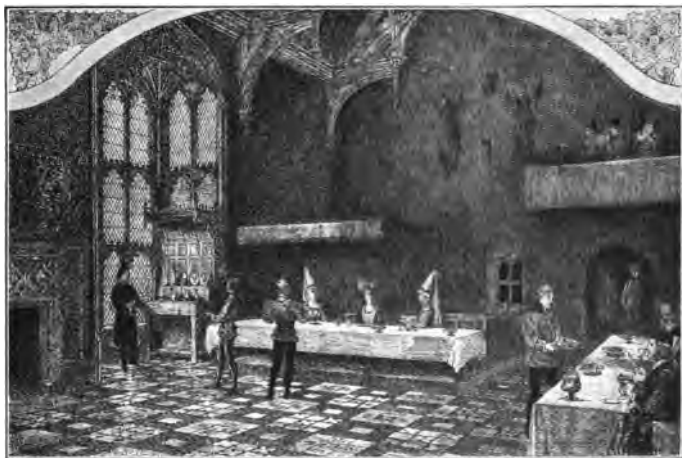
DINNER AT THE HOME OF A NOBLE LADY IN ENGLAND IN THE FIFTEENTH
CENTURY

hold; they actually " kept the pig in the parlor."   In
the finer manor houses, such as Scott describes in the home
of Cedric the Saxon, there were several apartments and many
refinements.

The castle was an artificial fort, usually built on some natur-   **The Castle**
ally fortified spot, such as a hill, swamp, or island; more rarely
on an open plain.   The walls were further strengthened by the
addition of stone towers and deep surrounding ditches full of

[1] A famous tapestry, with the embroideries above described, is known
as the Bayeux tapestry (see picture, p. 212) because it was found in a
monastery in that town.

AT THE GATE OF THE CASTLE
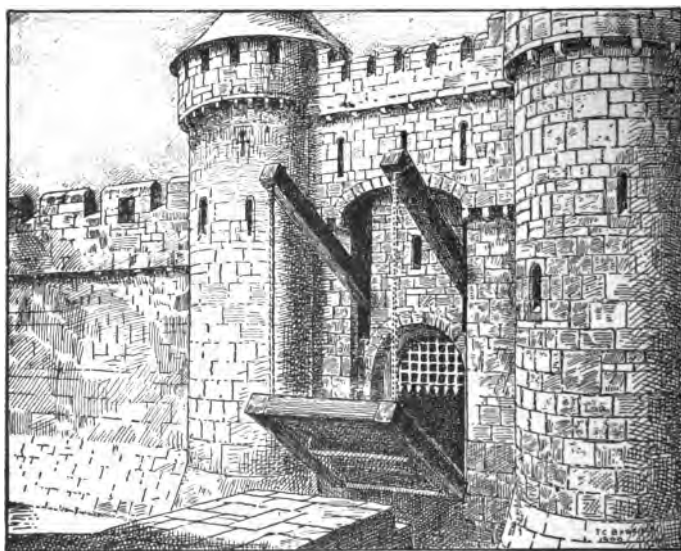
DRAWBRIDGE AND PORTCULLIS

Drawbridges were a common means of defence in the Middle Ages. Part of the bridge could be raised by means of the beams and chains, as shown in the picture, and the iron grating called the portcullis, sliding in groove in the walls could be lowered, so as to bar the entrance.

water.   The principal tower, in which the family of the lord
took refuge in time of siege, was called the keep, and was pro-
tected by a massive door, or gate, called the portcullis, and by
a deep and broad ditch, or moat, across which the only
means of approach was a drawbridge raised or lowered from
a position within the castle.   Near to or surrounding the
walls of the castle, villages were frequently erected, the castle
forming the citadel of the town, as in Edinburgh.

GREAT HALL OF A CASTLE IN THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

Along artistic lines the most important medieval achieve-   Architecture
ments were in architecture, which reached a high degree of
excellence in the Gothic style, introduced into England about
the time of Henry III.   Buildings used for law courts during
the pagan days of the Roman empire gave the early Christians
their models for church construction, because they were better
adapted to the gatherings of worshippers, introduced by the
new religion, than were the older temple forms, inasmuch as
the temple was primarily intended to contain the shrine of a
god and not at all to accommodate a large number of worship-
pers.   These early churches, or basilicas, by adding a transept
or wing to each side, at the pulpit end of the buildings,

assumed the form of a cross and gained in capacity. (See plans on the opposite page.)

The castle is situated on the summit of a rocky precipice
W. A winding road, the only means of access
A. Open space where the lord's retainers formed before a march, and from which the road was guarded
B. Bridge leading into the castle exterior
C. Towers for outlook and defence
D. Screen for protection against besiegers' missiles
E. Servants' quarters and stable in time of siege these were usually fired and abandoned
J. Exterior court
G. Moat
F. Drawbridge
H. Interior court
K. First entrance way
M. Inner entrance
P. Castle proper
RS. Dungeon-keep
T. Interior wall: the towers surrounding the inner courts had a hidden connection formed by T

PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL CASTLE

Gothic and Romanesque Styles Compared

The Gothic style was lighter and more airy than the Romanesque, or Norman, as will be observed by examining specimen churches built in each style. Instead of the narrow windows, made necessary by the thick walls of the Norman style, the later medieval churches were better lighted by large windows, richly decorated with stained glass which even modern skill cannot duplicate, while they became loftier and at the same time less massive because of the use of three architectural devices invented at that time. The first was the flying buttress, which gave the walls as much strength as the former massive style had given, and also afforded more room for window space; the second was the clustered pillar, in which a

number of slender, graceful pillars grouped together supported the arches of the roof more surely than the clumsy, heavy, single shaft of Norman times; the third, and perhaps most important, was the characteristic Gothic or pointed arch, which displaced the monotonous round arch of the earlier style, and by permitting varying heights to the spans supported by pillars, gave an additional beauty to the church structure.

TEMPLE	BASILICA	CATHEDRAL
S—Steps (temple was at great elevation)	P—Porch	S—Steps
Port—Portico	SI—Side Isles	P—Porch
N—Nave	N—Nave	SI—Side Isles
Post—Post Screen	D—Double Scene	N—Nave
	A—Altar	T—Transept
	B—Bema	C—Choir
	Ap—Apse	A—Altar
		CC—Chevet Chapels

L.L. PCATES CO., N.Y.
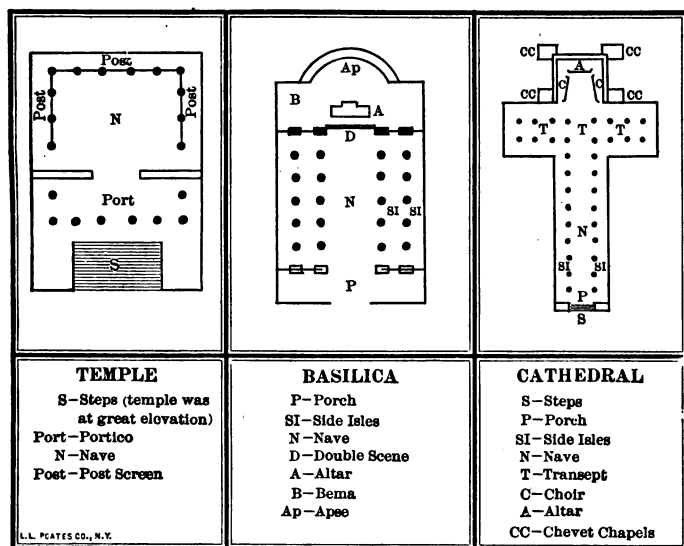
PLANS OF A TEMPLE, BASILICA, AND CATHEDRAL

90. Medieval Education. — The educational system built up by the Romans was ended by the closing of the public schools during the reign of Justinian, and for several centuries the only centers of learning in Europe were the monasteries. It is true that several medieval kings, like Charlemagne and Alfred, recognized the importance of education sufficiently to establish schools, but in the period of warfare which followed their reigns many of these schools were closed. During the eleventh

Beginnings of Education in the Middle Ages

century a few were reëstablished in the cities of France; for example in Paris, where, by the beginning of the twelfth century, theology was systematically studied. The greatest educator of this century was a clergyman named Abelard, whose lectures attracted thousands of students to Paris. He taught

Abelard
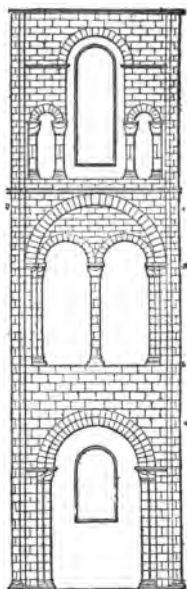
ONE BAY OF TRANSEPT,
WINCHESTER CATHEDRAL
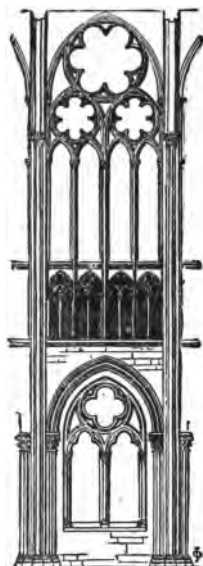
ONE BAY
ABBEY OF ST. DENIS

A comparison of Romanesque simplicity and Gothic ornateness.

that the way to knowledge is by individual human reason and not by the opinions of others; hence he was attacked by the most devout churchmen of his time, to whom his teachings seemed almost heretical.

Universities

During the same century the school at Paris was incorporated as a gild, or *universitas* (the Latin word for such an association), and was patronized by the king. Similar universities were founded about the same time at Oxford and Cambridge

in England, and at Bologna in Italy. The subjects studied were classified as the seven liberal arts and theology. The seven liberal arts formed two groups: the trivium, or three-fold way to knowledge, including logic, rhetoric, and grammar; and the quadrivium, or four-fold way, made up of music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. The method of instruction was chiefly that of the lecture: the teacher read portions of some authority to his class and made comments upon them; the students, sitting on the straw-covered ground, took down in note form the material presented.

The likeness of the medieval university to a gild is shown in the following rules governing the former: the teachers were called masters (hence our degree of master of arts) and attained the right to this title only after years of preparation or apprenticeship with other famous teachers;
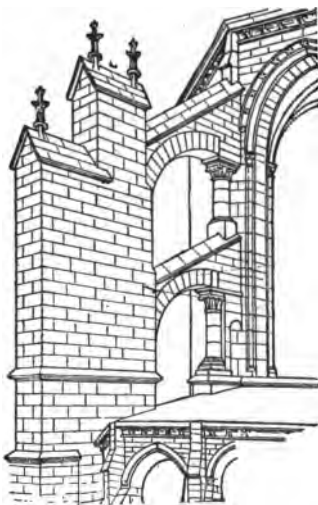
EARLY GOTHIC FLYING BUTTRESS

Flying buttresses were in common use in early England. They added great strength to the wall and were used as a means of decoration.

furthermore it was often the custom among medieval scholars to travel from one school to another in order to gain a knowledge of different methods of thought, much as did the journeymen in the gilds. The students of the middle ages led a rather disorderly existence, for when not attending the lectures, they spent their time in drinking and gambling, which often brought about brawls. Easily distinguishable from other townsmen by their peculiar caps and gowns, and free from proper restraint and discipline, they often became involved in serious conflicts with the people in " town and gown " riots.

Respect for Aristotle

The most striking peculiarity of medieval education was the great respect paid to the writings of Aristotle, who was regarded as *the* philosopher, an authority on all matters of knowledge almost equal to the Bible. The lectures of the

INTERIOR OF AMIENS CATHEDRAL

This beautiful example of the Gothic style of architecture was built in the Thirteenth Century, and is one of the four largest churches in the world.

masters were frequently based on his works, and although Aristotle lived three centuries before the Christian era, the greatest supporters of the medieval church did not scruple to found their theological arguments upon his opinions. The word "scholasticism" is applied to their methods of thought and of argument. Scholasticism assisted learning by interesting many in the universities and so aiding their growth, yet in general it tended to hamper originality of thought. By arousing interest in intellectual pursuits and by furnishing a definite system of thought, based upon Aristotle's teachings, scholasticism invited and guided a multitude of men into the fields of knowledge; yet by discouraging experimentation and the search into any subject not treated of by the Greek philosopher, it narrowed the field of education.

Scholasticism

Great Schoolmen

Among the greatest of scholastic teachers were Peter the Lombard and Thomas Aquinas. The former arranged the essential doctrines of the medieval church into the compact form, "The Sentences," which furnished an admirable textbook for use in the theological schools of the period. Thomas

Aquinas, a professor at the University of Paris, a far clearer thinker than Peter the Lombard, produced a somewhat similar book in his "Summary of Theology," which is still regarded by the Roman Church as the best exposition of its beliefs.

The dangers of scholasticism were understood by a few of the medieval scholars, among whom none ranks higher than Roger Bacon, an Englishman of the thirteenth century. He believed that too much respect was being paid to the opinions of the old Greek philosopher, and urged the importance of the observation of nature. He would have delighted in the laboratories possessed by modern high schools for the study of chemistry and biology. Among the most notable of his investigations was that into the nature of steam; tradition relates that he constructed a working model of a steam engine four hundred years before his countryman, Watt, made practical the engine of to-day, and that his fellow-friars, in their ignorance and superstitious fear, demolished it as a work of witchcraft.

In the following prophecy made by him, in a letter to a friend, Bacon showed that he was far ahead of his time. Of the future of scientific discovery he says: "Instruments for navigation can be made that will do away with the necessity for rowers, so that large ships, both in the rivers and on the seas, shall be borne about with only a single man to guide them and with greater speed then if they were full of men; and carriages can be built to move without animals to draw them, and with unbelievable speed. Machines for
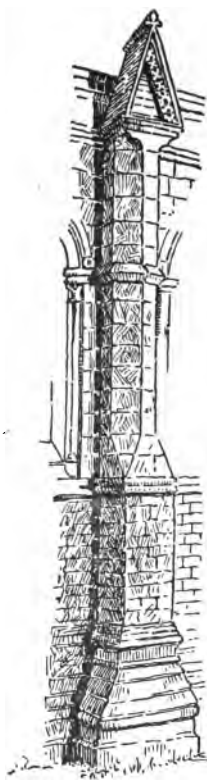
Roger Bacon

Bacon's Prophecy

BUTTRESS — SOUTHWELL MINSTER

flying can be made, in which a man sits and turns an in-
genious device by which skilfully constructed wings are made
to strike the air like the wings of a bird. Apparatus can be
planned, compact in itself, for raising and lowering tremendously
great weights: bridges can be built to span rivers without any
support." [1]

Character of Medieval Science   Bacon was practically alone in insight into scientific truth.
Most of the scientific writings of the middle ages have two
characteristics in common: a picturesque mingling of fact and

MAGDALEN COLLEGE — OXFORD

fancy, and a strong intent to point a religious moral. The lat-
ter characteristic is fully illustrated in the following extract
from an old English legend: " A bird, called phœnix, inhabits
this forest, who, when old, gathers fragrant plants, builds a
nest in the top of a tree, and sits on it. Suddenly the sun
kindles his nest into flame and the phœnix is consumed. From
the ashes of the pyre the likeness of an apple is found; out of
this grows a worm, as if hatched from an egg. It grows, be-

[1] In the motor-boat, automobile, aeroplane, steam-crane, and suspension
bridge, all inventions of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, these
prophecies of Bacon have been fulfilled.

coming like the young of an eagle, until it is in size like a full-grown eagle; and decked with brilliant plumage the phœnix is again beheld. In this manner man will choose to enter everlasting life through death's dark portal."

Other fields of knowledge show the same lack of definite observation and of the confusion of myth and fact, as is shown in the historical gem that follows: " A man lived in the Island of Crete, whose name was Saturn, so violent and cruel that he devoured his infant sons, all but one, who was called Jove, who drove his father out of the island. This Jove was the greatest of all the heathen gods; among certain nations he was called Thor." *(margin:* Teutonic and Romance Languages*)*

91. Medieval Languages and Their Literatures. — The two principal groups of languages in western Europe during the middle ages were those derived from the Latin, called Romance languages,[1] and those spoken by the various German tribes, the Teutonic languages.[2] To the latter group belong English, a combination of French and Anglo-Saxon, Dutch (Holland), Flemish, spoken in Flanders, German, Gothic (now a dead language), and the Scandinavian group, Danish, Norse, and Swedish. The Romance group includes the languages spoken in those parts of western Europe which were longest under the control of the Roman empire, in Italy, France, and the Spanish peninsula.

The Teutonic peoples produced the greater literature of the middle ages, notwithstanding the fact that the Romance languages inherited that of Latin. The wonderful " Nibelungenlied," or " Song of the Nibelungs," composed by the Bur- *(margin:* Teutonic Epics*)*

[1] The Romance (Roman or Latin) has given its name to a type of literature, because the inventors of that style of fiction wrote in the corrupt, mingled speech which arose from the attempts of the early German invaders of the Roman empire to pronounce the language found there.

[2] Other groups of languages, of widely different origins, are the Celtic, spoken by the early inhabitants of Gaul and Britain, of which the Gaelic (Scotch), Erse, (Irish), Welsh, and Armorican (Breton of Brittany) are examples; the Slavic, spoken by the people of Russia and Poland; and the Magyar, or Hungarian language. (See p. 175.)

gundians, has afforded the theme for Wagner's great circle of operas, including " Rhinegold," " The Valkyrie," and " Siegfried." The first translation of the Bible into the common tongue of the northern people was made into Gothic by Ulfilas, a Gothic missionary. In Anglo-Saxon, besides the work of Bede and Caedmon (see p. 205), a great epic poem, " Beowulf," relates the deeds of the great hero by that name, who slew

PREPARATIONS FOR A JUDICIAL COMBAT

The King-at-Arms is standing near the corner of the enclosure in which the fight is to take place. The appellant and the defender are making their oath together before the Judge of Combat.

dragons and ruled his people wisely in the days before the Saxon-folk came over the bounding water to the lands of the Welsh.

Minnesingers and Troubadours   The work of the minnesingers, German singers of short love poems, resembled that of the troubadours of France, · who wandered from castle to court, singing and entertaining the company there assembled with stories of knightly deeds and

Chivalry   of chivalry, the institution governing the knights of the middle ages. The knight regarded his position as a very exalted one.

He underwent a careful training; first, while a lad, as page in a knight's family; second, while a youth, as esquire to the knight, his follower in war, whose duties were to serve him in every way possible, assisting him to don the heavy armor of metal plates or the coats of mail made up of thousands of tiny metal links closely fastened together for protection against swords and lances. He was chosen to the knightly rank after some deed of signal bravery on the field of battle. Before as-

TOURNAMENT IN THE REIGN OF RICHARD II

suming all the privileges of knighthood he must undergo the vigil, or watch-night, by kneeling thinly clad all night before a church altar, upon which his armor was displayed, repeating prayer after prayer. Yet what pride must have filled him when later he felt the light tap of his lord's sword on his shoulder, and heard the words, " Arise, Sir Knight! "

This beautiful extract from the poem " Guinevere " by Tennyson records with historical accuracy the ideals of chivalry and knighthood, although in actual practice the knight was far from their attainment. King Arthur is made to say:

Knighthood

"I made them lay their hands in mine and swear
To reverence the King, as if he were
Their conscience, and their conscience as their King,
To break the heathen, and uphold the Christ,
To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,
To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it,
To honor his own word as if his God's,
To lead sweet lives in purest chastity."

The knight reserved these ideals for use only in his own rank of society. Instances of such an attitude toward peasants and poor freemen are rare in the middle ages. The " Idylls of the King," the poems in which Tennyson relates the deeds of King Arthur, a British chieftain supposed to have delayed the Saxon conquest of England, are founded upon a medieval French romance, the " Morte d'Arthur," by Sir Thomas Malory, an Anglo-French writer. Another cycle of legends clusters around the court of Charlemagne and the deeds of his paladins, especially of Roland, the count of the Spanish marches, whose heroic death is celebrated in legend and is responsible for the marvellous achievements related of that monarch.

92. Summary of the Life of the Middle Ages. — During the middle ages the workers were the common people of town and country. The lords led lives of idleness or, at best, of fruitless amusement, and required the common people to support them. The growth of towns enabled the townsmen to secure more political liberty, and this enlightenment spread slowly to the countrymen. Learning was at first confined to the clergy, who gathered together to form universities, keeping alive the spark of knowledge through an otherwise dark era. Commerce was restricted by the church and by the dangers of the time. The worst feature of medieval life was the lack of personal liberty, which was emphasized by the idea of privilege. With the spread of commerce and the growth of industry in the towns, the old ideas of chivalry were broken down and a better standard of living for all classes was made possible. Dimly the medieval writer felt within him the stirring

towards a nobler life than that of warfare and fruitless argument. In Italy, France, and England arose individuals or groups of men, who by their teachings or deeds were preparing for the wonderful outburst of enlightenment which accompanied the discovery of the new world and the freedom of man's conscience from the commands of irrational authority.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Describe the life on the manor of Cedric the Saxon as found in *Ivanhoe*. Make a study of some medieval town, as Chester, Oxford, or London. Write a description in your note-books of the Tower of London, Canterbury Cathedral, a medieval monastery. Describe a medieval fair. Imagine yourself as having always lived on a fourteenth century manor, until, in your fifteenth year, you are taken by your father to the town of Canterbury. Write a letter home describing your impressions of town life. Describe a journey taken by a medieval merchant from London to the mouth of the Loire by ship, and thence by pack train to Orleans. Bring in as many of the conditions of medieval trade as you can. Consult map on p. 248. Copy in your note-books a plan of the medieval manor; of a castle; diagrams showing the characteristic features of Norman and Gothic architecture. Make a collection of pictures illustrating the art and architecture of the Middle Ages. Relate the stories of the *Nibelungen Lied, Beowulf, Idylls of the King*, Charlemagne's paladins.

(The following topics are treated in Beard's *English Historians*.)

Thirteenth Century Descriptions of the Manor of Wilburton, 158. Sale and Discharge of Works, 161. Manorial Accounts in Edward II's Day, 162. The Summary of the Development of the Manor, 167. Origin of of English Towns, 169. Character and Origin of Merchant Gilds, 171. Membership in Merchant Gild, 172. Gild Regulations, 174. Craft Gild and its Relations to Merchant Gild, 175. Early Craft Gilds, 177. Struggle of Craftsmen for Privileges, 179. Growth of Craft Gilds, 180. Internal Organization of Craft Gild, 181. Town Life in the Middle Ages — Provisions for Municipal Defence, 185. Medieval Police, 188. Municipal Lands, 190. Municipal Property and Finance, 190. Municipal Improvements, 192. Public Charity, 190. Town Gayeties, 194. The Church as a center of Town Life, 198. Public Spirit in Medieval Towns, 202.

(The following topics are treated in Emerton's *Mediæval Europe*.)

Scholastic Culture and Great Scholastics, 446–64. Medieval Universities, 465–72. Serfdom, 509–20. The Communes, 522–40.

(The following topics are based on Tickner, *Social and Industrial History of England.*)

Life in an Early English Village, pp. 10–24. Early English Homes, Castle, Manor-house and Hut, pp. 25–41. The Beginnings of the Town, the Gilds, pp. 42–57. A Medieval Town at Work, Shops, Markets, Fairs, pp. 58–73. A Medieval Town at Play, pp. 74–84. Some Famous Buildings, Styles of Architecture, pp. 104–118. Days of Chivalry, Knighthood, pp. 119–31. By the Wayside in Merrie England, Highways, Dangers of Travel, Vehicles, Merchants and Pedlars, Pilgrims, Minstrels, Inns, pp. 132–47. Medieval School and University, Elementary, Grammar, Monastic, Trade Schools, University Life, Studies, pp. 175–88; The Making of Books, Great Epics, pp. 180–96.

(The following topics are based on *A Short History of English Rural Life*, Fordham, Scribners.)

The Manor and the Village, pp. 30–48. Medieval Village Life, pp. 63–5. Plan of a Manor (diagram), Frontispiece.

(The following topics are based on Tuell and Hatch, *Readings in English History*, Ginn.)

Village Life Six Hundred Years Ago, pp. 106–22. The Towns, Industrial Villages, and Fairs, pp. 122–29. Medieval Towns and Gilds, pp. 129–33. Life at Oxford University in the Middle Ages, pp. 134–45.

(The following topics are based on Synge, *Social Life in England*, Barnes.)

An Age of Promise, 1204–1250, pp. 75–86. The Dawn of Luxury, 1250–1348, pp. 87–98.

(The following topics are based on Curtler, *Short History of English Agriculture*, Oxford Press.)

Growth of the Manor, pp. 1–23. The Thirteenth Century, the Manor at its height, pp. 24–37. How the Classes Connected with the Land Lived in the Middle Ages, pp. 48–55.

(The following source studies are to be found in Thatcher and McNeal, *Source-book for Medieval History*, Scribners.)

The Manner of Freeing a Serf, pp. 546–48. A Medieval Town Charter, pp. 592–602. Medieval Market Rights, pp. 578–82. Town Leagues, pp. 609–12.

(The following source studies are based on *The Library of Original Sources*, University Research Extension Company.)

Medieval University Life, Vol. IV, pp. 350–57. Roger Bacon, pp. 368–76. English City Institutions, pp. 390–96.

A longer treatment of the life and culture of the Middle Ages, than that given in the text, may be read in Robinson's *History of Western Europe*, 233–76, or in Munro's *History of the Middle Ages*, 135–68.

REFERENCE READINGS

Cheyney, *Short History of England*, pp. 195–204; *Readings in English History*, pp. 188–95, 208–17.

Guerber, *Legends of the Middle Ages:* American Book Company. (For the stories.)

Tennyson, *Idylls of the King.* (Any edition.)

Seignobos, *Medieval Civilization*, pp. 67–71, 164–72, 192–204.
Kendall, *Source-book of English History*, pp. 65–71. (Description of London about 1200.)
Cheyney, *Social and Industrial History of England*, pp. 75–95: Macmillan.
Webster, *General History of Commerce*, pp. 94–106; Ginn and Co. (Summary of medieval commerce.)

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*. Plan of London about 1300, p. 75; Medieval Commerce, pp. 98–99; Hanseatic League, p. 99; Ground Plan of Monastery, 101; Asiatic Commerce, 102–2; Plan of Medieval Manor, p. 104; Medieval Universities, p. 100.

CHAPTER XII

THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

93. The Hundred Years' War. — Edward III, of England, the son of the incompetent Edward II, is remembered principally because he resumed the struggle, begun by Henry II, to win the territories of the French king. This struggle lasted

COSTUMES IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

R. Herald	S. Herald	T. Morris Dancer	U. Lady
V. Lady	W. Traveler	X. Traveler	Y. Traveler

for over one hundred years and ended in the extinction of England's power in France. King John had surrendered to Philip Augustus the former possessions of his family in northern

Causes France, and all that remained of the once splendid Angevin dominion was the district south of the Loire. For nearly two

POSSESSIONS OF EDWARD III by the TREATY OF BRETIGNY 1360

FRENCH POSSESSIONS OF EDWARD III at the beginning of THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR 1340
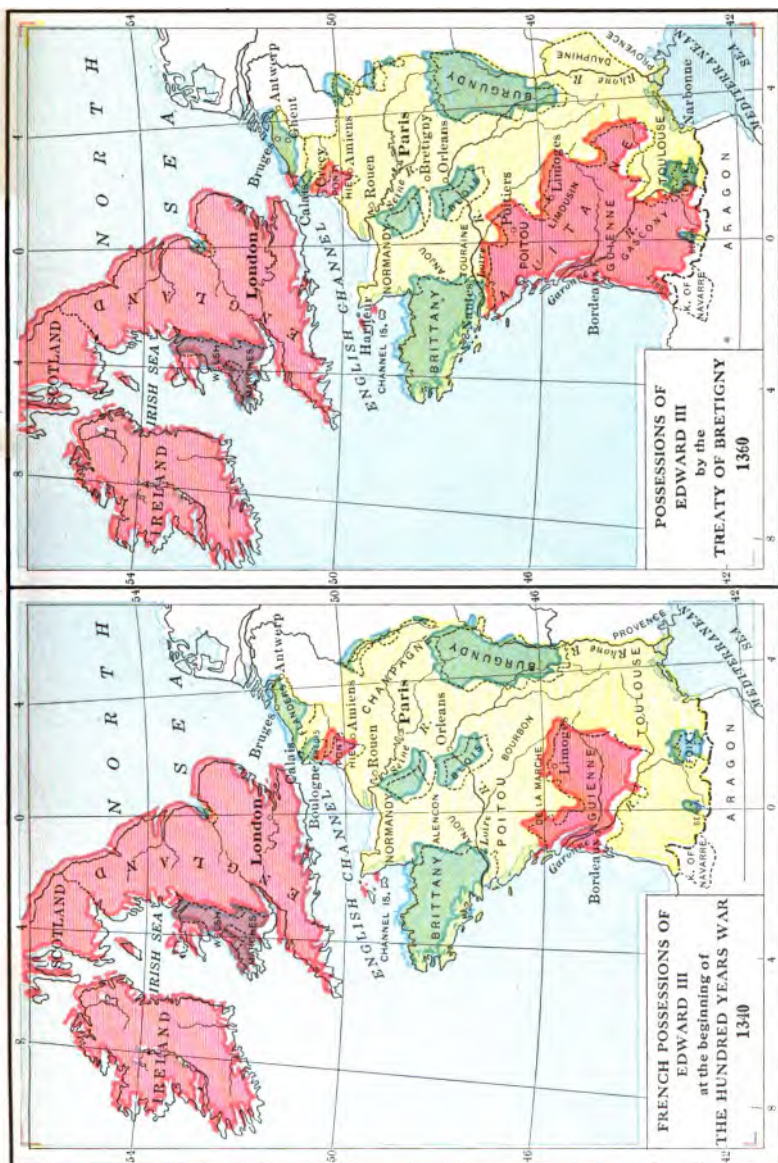
hundred years the French rulers had endeavored in various ways to gain Guienne and Gascony, thus furnishing one cause for war between England and France.

The Hundred Years' War started in a contest for commercial supremacy between Philip VI of France and Edward III. For a century the towns in the French fief of Flanders had used only English-grown wool, because it was of much finer quality and of longer fiber than the wool grown in France. Philip wished

A STATE CARRIAGE IN THE TIME OF EDWARD III

The carriage drawn by six horses, was heavy, clumsy, and springless.
It was elaborately upholstered and decorated.

to shut out English wool from the Flemish towns, in order that he might create a market there for French wool and thus stimulate this branch of industry in his kingdom; so he in- duced the Count of Flanders to issue orders hampering the trade in English wool. Chafing at these restrictions, the burghers of Ghent and Bruges and other Flemish towns rebelled against their lord and asked Edward to aid them. Philip came to the aid of the Count of Flanders, and thus the struggle commenced.

(3) Coast
Raids

Englishmen were ready for this war. French fishermen were in the habit of interfering with English commerce and with the fishing industry. Frequent raids were made by the coast vessels of each race upon the unprotected fishing villages on

(4) Violation
of Neutrality
by France

each side of the channel. Another cause of hostility was the failure of the French rulers to maintain a neutral position in the wars between England and Scotland. French troops had

SCENE IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD III

Showing the architecture, costumes, and musical instruments.

assisted Scotland in her struggle for independence and French money had kept the cause of freedom alive in Scotland, much in the same way and for the same motives that France, in the American Revolution, aided the colonies.

(5) Claim of
Edward III
to the French
Throne

After hostilities had actually commenced Edward advanced a claim to the throne of France.[1] According to one theory of succession this claim was reasonable. The three brothers of Isabella, Edward's mother, had died without male heirs, and

[1] That Edward's claim was not advanced by him until after the war had begun is good proof that it was not considered a serious one at first, even by those most interested.

Edward believed that he had the next claim to the crown. The French people had had no desire to be ruled by an English king, and so they had chosen the nearest male heir, a distant cousin of Isabella, to rule over them.

TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR
INCLUDING THE DESCENT OF EDWARD III FROM PHILIP III

Philip III

Philip IV (the Fair)   Charles of Valois

Louis X   Isabella = Edward II   Philip V   Charles IV

Edward III   Philip VI

Edward the Black Prince   John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster   John the Good

Richard II   Henry IV   Charles VI

                        Bedford

Henry V   Charles VII
          Catharine of Valois

Henry VI
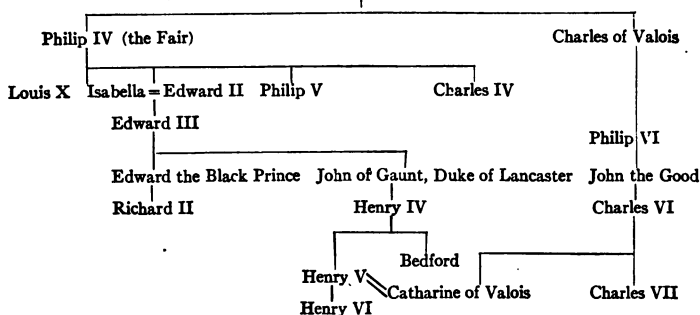
After several years of preparation Edward III invaded France **First Period** and won a signal victory at Crécy in Normandy, where his **of the War** well-armed infantry and expert archers put to rout the medieval army of French knights. From this time the infantry soldier was valued at his proper worth. Soon after Crécy, Edward captured Calais, an important seaport town of Normandy, which remained a possession of England long after she had lost the remainder of her French possessions. Ten years after Crécy the Prince of Wales, known as Edward the Black Prince, won an equally great victory over Philip's successor at the battle of Poitiers. During the last part of this war cannon were first used in sieges. The war dragged on for several years until, both sides weary of fighting, peace was made at Bretigny in 1360. Edward III gave up his claim to the French throne and to the northern provinces, but received a clear title to the southern provinces; whereas the French king promised not to interfere in Guienne or in the Flemish wool trade.

Beginnings of the Lancastrian Family

In the interval between the first and second periods of this war many important social and economic changes took place in England, of which we shall treat later. Edward's son, the Black Prince, died before his father, leaving a young son who was crowned as Richard II. Richard was at first under the influence of his uncle, John of Gaunt, as the English pronounced Ghent. When the young king attempted to rule arbitrarily, he was deposed and murdered by order of John's son, the young Duke

AN ATTACK ON A WALLED TOWN

of Lancaster, who became Henry IV. This political change was sanctioned by parliament, which by this time had gained several powers. Through its power over taxation, which originated in Magna Carta, it could compel the king to make peace if the expenses of the war became too great. It could force the dismissal of unpopular ministers, and on two occasions dismissed the king

Second Period of the War

himself — Edward II and Richard II. Henry IV, the first of the Lancastrian family of rulers, was too much occupied with affairs at home to resume the war with France, but his son, Henry V, reopened the struggle. After winning the famous battle of

Agincourt, Henry V forced the imbecile Charles VI of France to sign a treaty at Troyes in 1420, recognizing Henry as the heir to the throne of France and excluding the dauphin.[1]   To seal this agreement Henry married Catharine, daughter of Charles VI.

Henry V and Charles VI died the same year, and Henry's **Joan of Arc** brother, the Duke of Bedford, took up the fight to make the

king's infant son, Henry VI, king of France as well as of England. France was divided by a contest between the powerful Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans to secure control over the Dauphin Charles, and when the Armagnacs, or Orleanist faction, murdered the Duke of Burgundy the Burgundians went over to the side of the English. Just at this juncture when all appeared dark for France, there appeared a wonderful champion for the dauphin in the person of a humble shepherd girl from the village of Dom-

JOAN OF ARC LEADING THE FRENCH TROOPS AT ORLEANS

remy, who is known as Joan of Arc.   From earliest childhood she had dreamed of becoming the savior of France, and believed that she had visions of the saints. When the English laid siege to the city of Orleans, she thought she was told by heavenly voices to go to the dauphin and offer him her aid. It seems very strange and unreal to us to read how she convinced the war-hardened advisers of the dauphin of the righteousness of her purpose, and how, at the head of the encouraged

[1] The title of dauphin was applied to the heir to the French throne.

French army, she drove the besieging forces from the walls of Orleans. Filled with a new inspiration and enthusiasm, the French rallied around their dauphin and crowned him king of France at the city of Rheims, the ancient coronation place of French kings. Joan's work was done, and she longed to return to her former quiet life, but Charles VII would not consent. Thereafter her luck seems to have deserted her, for she was captured by the Burgundians and betrayed to the English, who were glad of the opportunity to wreak their vengeance upon the one who had defeated their hopes. Joan was accused of having won her victories by witchcraft, and on that charge was condemned and burnt at the stake. This act of cruelty availed nothing, for the French nation was thoroughly aroused. The French armies were everywhere victorious, and within twenty years the English had lost all their French possessions except Calais.

JOAN OF ARC

This picture shows the crowning of Charles VII at Rheims, the ancient coronation city of the French kings. Joan of Arc stands beside him sword in hand.

Effects of the Hundred Years' War

94. Social Conditions in England during the Hundred Years' War. — The hundred years of warfare with France wrought great suffering upon the people of both countries. A terrible pestilence, called Black Death, swept over Europe several times during the progress of these wars, greatly diminishing the population, especially in England. This pest, a form of the bubonic plague, caused great changes in the economic conditions of

CALAIS AND
THE CHANNEL ISLANDS,
THE LAST POSSESSIONS
OF THE ENGLISH KINGS
IN FRANCE. 1453.

POSSESSIONS OF
HENRY V.
1429.
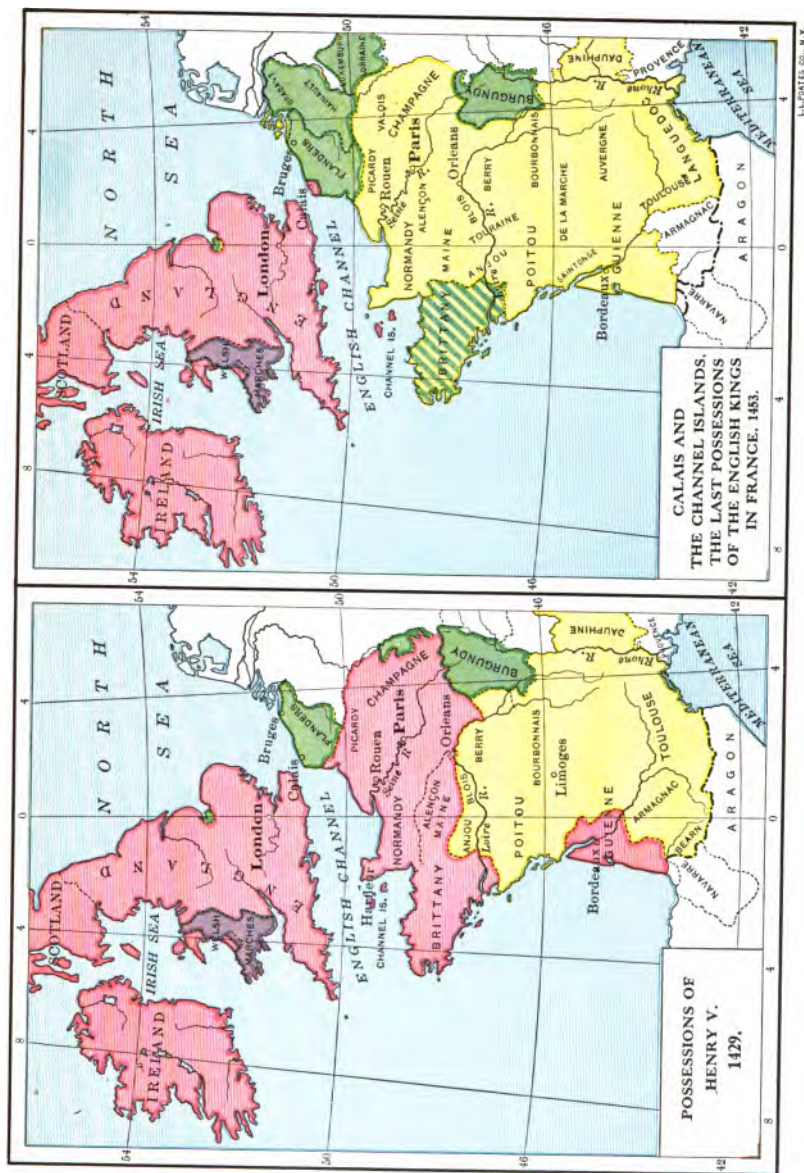
England. The scarcity of laborers doubled the cost of living and greatly increased the need for help. When the working men demanded higher wages, the government vainly tried to put things back on the old basis by passing various statutes concerning laborers, requiring them to work for the wage prevailing before the plague had diminished the supply of available workmen, and forbidding the payment of higher wages under severe penalties, but the landlords had to have laborers and the statutes soon were disobeyed. Little by little the shackles were struck from the serfs and they became free laborers; yet the process was slow and the common people became very discontented with their lot. This discontent was increased by the levying of heavy taxes incidental to the maintenance of foreign wars, such as the poll tax which was collected from the heads of families.

(1) Increased Cost of Living

(2) Statutes of Laborers

(3) Decline of Serfdom

(4) Poll Tax

THE TOWER OF JOAN OF ARC

The donjon of the castle of Bouvreuil was built by Philip Augustus after the conquest of Normandy in 1204. Here Joan of Arc was imprisoned.

Illiterate preachers went around England preaching socialistic doctrines and attacking the right of the governing classes to hold the peasants in poverty and servitude.[1] They were uneducated because, owing to the carrying off of the clergy by

[1] A favorite saying with these preachers was:
"When Adam delved, (dug or ploughed)
And Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

Black Death, the times required men to accept the responsi-
bilities of priesthood with little opportunities for training.
Coming principally from the humbler classes, these men ques-
tioned the right of the government to tax and to rule the com-
moners so harshly, and as the church upheld the government,
they often criticized the church.   The most outspoken of the
critics of the church of this period was not an ignorant peasant,
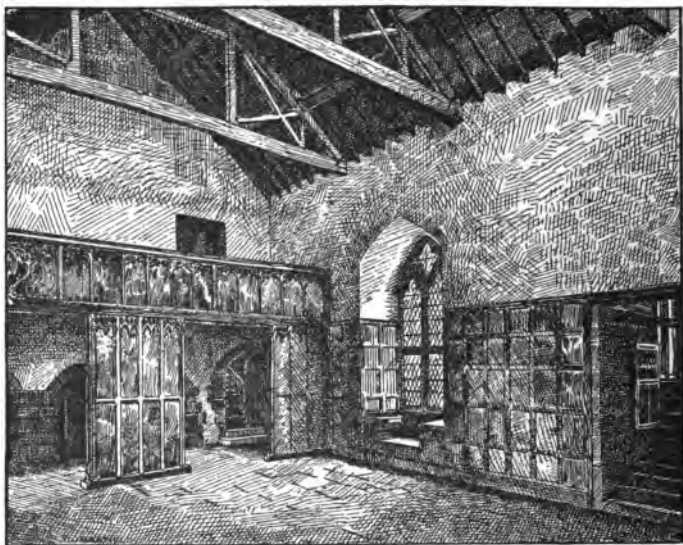
BANQUET HALL AT HADDON HALL (Fourteenth Century)

(5) Wyclif and Lollardry   but a clergyman named Wyclif, a professor at Oxford.   (See
also p. 283.)   His followers received the nickname " Lollards,"
which had long been used on the continent as a term of reproach
for those who brought forward new and ridiculous ideas.
Lollardry grew to such an extent that the English govern-
ment made heresy a crime punishable with burning at the stake.

(6) Peasant's Revolt   This discontent came to a head in an insurrection of the
peasants led by Wat Tyler, which for a short time threatened
to overturn the government.   London was taken by the rebels

and sacked, and many officials were murdered by the enraged
peasants.   Lulled into false security by the promises of King
Richard II to make them freemen, and disheartened at the
murder of their leader, the rebels disbanded, only to be hunted
down and punished by the government with the utmost severity.
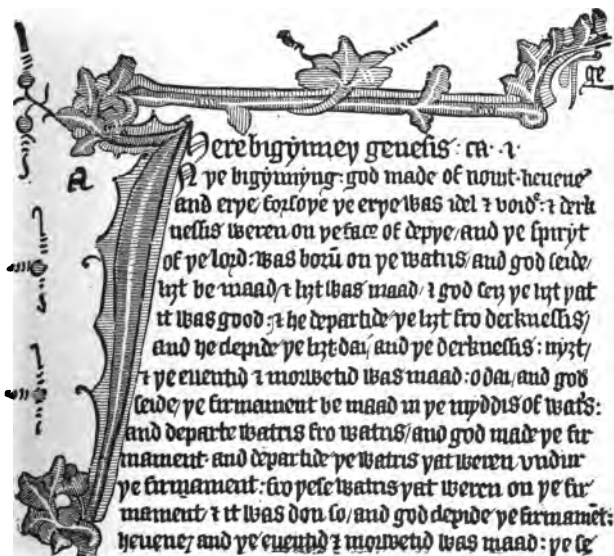
WYCLIF'S BIBLE

Facsimile of first verses of Genesis, translated by Nicholas Hereford
under Wyclif's direction.   Wyclif translated only a part of the Old Testa-
ment and the Gospels of St. Mark in the New Testament.   The remainder
was done under his direction.   It was completed in 1383–1384.

The literature of the period reflects the differences between
the court life and the peasant's occupations.   In " Piers Plow-·
man," a long poem attributed to William Langland, a northern
writer of whom little is known, life among the lowly is described
in vigorous and somewhat rough-sounding English, which
shows much closer resemblance to the more highly inflected
German than does the mixed Norman-English of the south.

Beginnings of
English
Literature

The finest examples of the latter are to be found in the English translation of the Bible made by Wyclif and in the group of narrative poems called "The Canterbury Tales." These were written by a courtier named Geoffrey Chaucer and purport to be a series of stories related at the Tabard Inn in Southwark, across the Thames from old London, by a band of pilgrims to the shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury, who have stopped for the night's refreshment and rest.

CHAUCER

Causes of the Wars of the Roses

95. The Wars of the Roses and the First Tudor King. — When the French wars were ended England was shaken by a series of civil wars between rival branches of the family of Edward III, commonly known as the Wars of the Roses, because of the emblems chosen by each faction. We have already seen how the Lancastrian family had obtained the throne. (See p. 229.) There were many in England who believed that the crown should have gone to one of the descendants of the Duke of Clarence, the older brother of John of Gaunt. The most promising candidate of the latter faction was Richard, Duke of York, the grandson of the founder of the House of York; and his claim to the throne was made more formidable by the condition of imbecility which clouded the later life of Henry VI. The war between the Lancastrians, or Red Roses, and the Yorkist faction, or White Roses, was made more

bitter by the disorder of the country following the economic changes resulting from Black Death.   Moreover the barons had taken advantage of the preoccupation of the royal government in the Hundred Years' War and had gathered around themselves armed bands of professional fighters, uniformed and maintained by their patrons.   This practice of "livery and maintenance" was contrary to the spirit of English law, as it tended to create small standing armies not under the control of the king.

TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE THE WARS OF THE ROSES

```
                              Edward III
                                  |
        ┌─────────────────┬────────────────────┬──────────────┐
     Lionel          Blanche = John        = Katharine      Edmund
Duke of Clarence         | Duke of Lancaster    |         Duke of York
        |                  |                     |              |
     Philippa           Henry IV           John Beaufort    *Richard
        |                  |                     |         Earl of Cambridge
     Mortimer      Henry V = Catharine = Owen Tudor   John Beaufort
        |                   of France |                     |
      Anne              Henry VI      Edmund Tudor = Margaret Beaufort
  Mortimer = *Richard
        | Earl of Cambridge
      Richard
   Duke of York
        |
   ┌────────────────────────────┐
Edward IV                   Richard III
   |                      (Earl of Gloucester)
   |
┌──────────┬──────────────────┐
Edward V        Richard     Elizabeth = Henry VII (Tudor)
(The two princes murdered in the tower)  of York
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The wars consisted of a number of battles between the Lancastrian and Yorkist nobles, first to control the weak-minded king, Henry VI, later to crown the Yorkist claimant.   After Richard's death, his son, Edward, became the Yorkist leader. He had the support of the middle class and the towns because he promised to restore order and to curb the nobles.   At first Edward was victorious, then the most prominent Yorkist nobleman, next to Edward, the Earl of Warwick, deserted to Henry, and Edward fled from England; but, later, aided by the Duke of Burgundy, he returned, defeated the Lancastrians, and executed Henry VI.

With the reign of Edward IV, the English monarchy became

Summary of the Wars of the Roses

* The same person.

The Reign of Edward IV

more absolute. At peace with foreign foes and domestic factions, Edward did away with the need of securing funds with the consent of parliament by forcing the clergy to pay him large sums and by confiscating the Lancastrian estates. He deserves chiefly to be remembered as the patron of the newly introduced

CAXTON SHOWING HIS FIRST PROOF TO EDWARD IV

The Introduction of Printing

art of printing. The earliest printing was from wooden blocks on which had been carved by hand the various letters and pictures; later, separate and movable types were invented. A hand-press was used at first and its operation was slow and awkward, but many times faster than the laborious process of copying by hand used before William Caxton introduced the printing press from the continent (1476). He published the great works of English literature then extant, and translated into

English Vergil's "Aeneid," Cicero's works, and other master-pieces, and was a powerful force in shaping the English language. Various forms of the same words were then used in England, and he had to choose between them.   The written language of later writers follow his forms, which were those most commonly used by all classes.   It was largely owing to the generous patronage of Edward IV that Caxton was enabled to engage in this work of educational and lasting value.

After twelve years' rule, during which the towns became prosperous owing to the king's policy, Edward died, leaving his crown to his twelve-year-old son, Edward V.   The late king's brother, the Earl of Gloucester, imprisoned both Edward V and his brother Richard in the Tower of London and usurped the throne, taking the title of Richard III.   He ruled for two years, when he was in turn killed at the battle of Bosworth by Henry Tudor, the sole important survivor of the Lancastrian family, who agreed to marry Edward IV's daughter, Elizabeth. With the accession of Henry VII the Wars of the Roses and medieval England came to an end. ✔

96. The Eclipse of the Papacy. — By the end of the thirteenth century the papacy had reached the height of its power and had begun to decline in influence.   Fulfilling a unique function in the last days of the Roman empire, it had steadily increased in power.   The circumstances connected with the crowning of Pepin (see p. 156) made the Roman Church supreme in the West, while the relations between Charlemagne and the pope put an end to the chances of the Eastern emperors of regaining influence in the West.   Although the investiture struggle ended in a form of compromise, the Concordat of Worms brought the pope before the eyes of Europe as the arbiter of political as well as of ecclesiastical matters.   (See p. 180.) The church lost this position because of the rising force of national feeling in the greater states, especially in France.

Philip the Fair adopted the policy of his contemporary, Edward I of England, in regard to taxation.   With an impar-

Position of the Papacy at the End of the Thirteenth Century

Philip the Fair and Boniface VIII

tiality displeasing to the church, Philip taxed clergymen as well as laymen. Against this system Pope Boniface VIII inveighed in the papal decree *Clericis laicos*, prohibiting churchmen from paying taxes to the king of France. In order to find out how the important people of his country felt in regard to this matter, Philip called together a meeting of the estates general, a gathering of the representatives of the upper and middle classes or estates, thus acting in accordance with the growth of representative government in England. The estates general upheld the king in his attitude toward the pope. Attacked by a small force under Nogaret, one of Philip's councillors, and suffering from the wanton humiliation put upon him, Boniface was so disheartened that he died shortly afterwards. This incident shows that the French nation was becoming conscious of itself.

In order to carry out his own policies Philip, after the death of Boniface, procured the election of a Frenchman to the papacy and transferred the seat of the papal government from Rome to Avignon, a small city in the south of France. The Babylonian captivity of the church, as this removal of the papacy from Rome is called, lasted for over seventy years, and had a profound effect upon the later history of the church. The Avignon popes were suspected, perhaps with some degree of justice, of favoring the French kings by their decisions and hence were little respected by the English or by other foes of France. During this period the papal court at Avignon was the scene of such extravagance and worldliness that Petrarch, a progressive clergyman of the Roman Catholic faith, was moved to denounce the lavish waste of resources by the church officials.

In 1377 a zealous pope ended the captivity by removing his court from Avignon to Rome. After his death the cardinals, many of whom were French and liked the luxurious living of Avignon, elected a humble priest Urban VI who, they thought, would be ruled by them. When he refused to take them back to Avignon they deposed him and elected another pope, Clement VII, who was more amenable to their wishes. Urban refused

Meeting of the Estates General 1302

Babylonian Captivity of the Church

The Great Schism

to recognize his own deposition, continued to rule as pope at Rome, and created a new college of cardinals from his own party. Christendom had the pathetic spectacle of two church organizations, each claiming to be the original church founded by Peter, each thundering edicts against the other. This period of rival papal claims is known as the Great Schism. Its essential historic meaning was that the contest for supremacy had been transferred from the pope and the state to the pope and general council of the church. In 1409 a council was held at Pisa which attempted to arbitrate between the rival popes, but the result was disastrous. As neither appeared before the council, it deposed both the Avignon and Roman pope and elected a new pope, who, it was hoped, would heal the schism; but as neither of the older popes recognized the legality of the acts of the council of Pisa there was thus created a third church organization within the fold of St. Peter.

It is not strange that, for the first time since the blotting out of **Wyclif** the Albigensians (see p. 186), heresy lifted its head again. During the Babylonian captivity Wyclif made the first determined attack upon the papal authority, questioning the right of the pope, then the ally of the French in the Hundred Years' War, to tax Englishmen.[1] The right of the papal authorities to levy heavy taxes upon the people of European nations without their consent became one of the vital issues in the reformation of the church. Because of his war on this power of the papacy, Wyclif is called " the morning star of the Reformation."

His teachings were carried into Bohemia and accepted by **John Huss** John Huss, whose bitter attacks on the papacy formed one of the reasons for the calling of the celebrated council at Constance in 1414. Under safe-conduct from his emperor, John Huss appeared before this council to answer to the charge of heresy.

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[1] Another custom irritating to Englishmen was the appointment by the pope of persons designated to succeed abbots and other high clergy. As these provisional appointees or provisors were usually foreign born, some of them Frenchmen, and as on their account the expenses of the church were greatly increased, parliament forbade the practice by the Statute of Provisors.

No one doubted that his views were heretical, and as he refused to retract them his condemnation was inevitable. In violation of the sacred promise of the emperor, Sigismund, Huss was burned at the stake. His death stirred up a fury among the people of Bohemia, who began the first of the great religious wars which characterized the beginning of modern history.

Council of Constance

In addition to the matter of heresy, other reasons for the calling together of a church council at Constance were to heal the schism and to effect other needed reforms. After declaring a church council superior to the pope in the decree Sacrosancta, the council healed the schism by deposing all the former rival popes and by selecting a new pope who was satisfactory to all factions of the church. It then drew up a list of tentative reforms; unfortunately these reforms were not put through at the time, owing to the opposition of reactionary clergymen within the church. In the century that followed, the failure to reform the church from within led to an attempt to reform it from without, which is known as the Protestant Reformation.

DUOMO AND CAMPANILE AT FLORENCE

The Cathedral is of a mixed Gothic and Romanesque. The dome is architecturally perfect. The bell-tower, or Campanile, is a separate structure and is known as Giotto's Tower.

Meaning of the Term

97. The Renaissance. — Two factors contributed to bring to an end the period of history called the middle ages: the first

was the renaissance; the other the great increase of interest in geographical and scientific discovery and invention. By the term " renaissance " is meant the revival of interest in learning of all kinds which characterized the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. .

STORY OF ABRAHAM (BY GHIBERTI).   BAPTISTERY GATE, FLORENCE

This " rebirth " of learning manifested itself along many lines. Art became more life-like, architecture more beautiful, education more scientific and wider spread.   The renaissance began in Italy and spread over Europe, gradually changing medieval ideas into modern.   In order to understand the renaissance it is necessary to know something of the conditions in Italy responsible for it.

Since the decline of the medieval empire Italy had possessed no unity of government. In the south was the kingdom of Naples; in the central part were several small states under the direct sovereignty of the pope, the papal states or states of the church; in the north were a number of city-states which had grown up around the Lombard cities, among them four of special prominence — Florence, Venice, Milan, and Genoa. These cities, constantly at war with each other, employed soldiers of fortune, the *condottieri*, to fight their battles for

ST. MARK'S CATHEDRAL — VENICE

them, a practice which caused such demoralization that the republican governments flourishing in the earlier middle ages were overturned and dynasties of tyrants founded, or else the city was ruled by the wealthier classes, who chose dukes to act as chief magistrates. These tyrants, like those of ancient Greece, patronized art and education.

In Florence the Medici, a family of financiers who controlled the city's policy, aided such great artists and sculptors as Michael Angelo, of whom we shall speak later. Venice was controlled by a small group of wealthy aristocrats, who elected annually a council of ten to carry on its affairs, and a doge,

MILAN CATHEDRAL

or duke, to act as the nominal head of the government. The commerce of Venice was on every sea, and the profits of her enterprises brought a large amount of money into the city for the building of the beautiful palaces which still moulder along the Grand Canal, and of the Byzantine church of San Marco

(St. Mark), still the marvel of tourists because of its exquisite marbles and opulent oriental architecture. Milan levied tribute on the neighboring cities and erected a duchy out of the surrounding territory for the Sforza family, whose founder was a captain of *condottieri*. Genoa, posing as a republic

THE FLIGHT INTO EGYPT (GIOTTO)

until the time of Napoleon, shared the dominion of the sea with Venice, her rival on the eastern coast of Italy, and trained such navigators as Christopher Columbus.

Medieval Art

Historians are now agreed that enlightenment did not actually die during the Dark Ages, as the earlier middle ages were formerly called. There had been a brief revival of learning in the time of Charlemagne, another in the twelfth century, and still another in the thirteenth. During this period all that was finest in art and literature was merely slumbering.

The artists of the earlier middle ages painted beautiful faces, but the rest of the figure and the background were always sadly out of proportion, as can be seen by examining a picture of that period.

The literary productions were as badly out of proportion as were the artistic. There was no strength in the writing, which was always in Latin; and because people were careless in their

Medieval Literature

MADONNA OF ST. FRANCIS (ANDREA DEL SARTO)

Compare the angularity and lack of naturalness in the Giotto group with the beauty and grace of the Del Sarto Madonna.

study of Latin, many grammatical errors had crept in. The Greeks had more correct conceptions of art than the early medieval painters showed in their work. The reason for the failure on the part of the artists of that time to make use of the Greek models of form is perhaps to be explained by the distrust

then felt for anything produced by heathen nations.[1]   This
distrust led to general ignorance concerning the Greeks.

Early in the fifteenth century this ignorance began to be dis-
pelled by certain talented Greek professors, who were attracted

TWO MASTERPIECES OF SCULPTURE BY MICHAEL ANGELO

The one at the left is a portrait statue of Lorenzo de Medici, the patron
of arts.   The other statue is the sculptor's conception of Moses.

Causes of the Renaissance by the prosperity of the northern Italian cities to lecture in
their universities.   Their students carried home a lively interest
in the civilization of ancient Greece, and it is not surprising

[1] This statement serves to bring the single exception to this distrust
into a very prominent position.   For the position of Aristotle, see p. 258.

EXTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S CHURCH, ROME
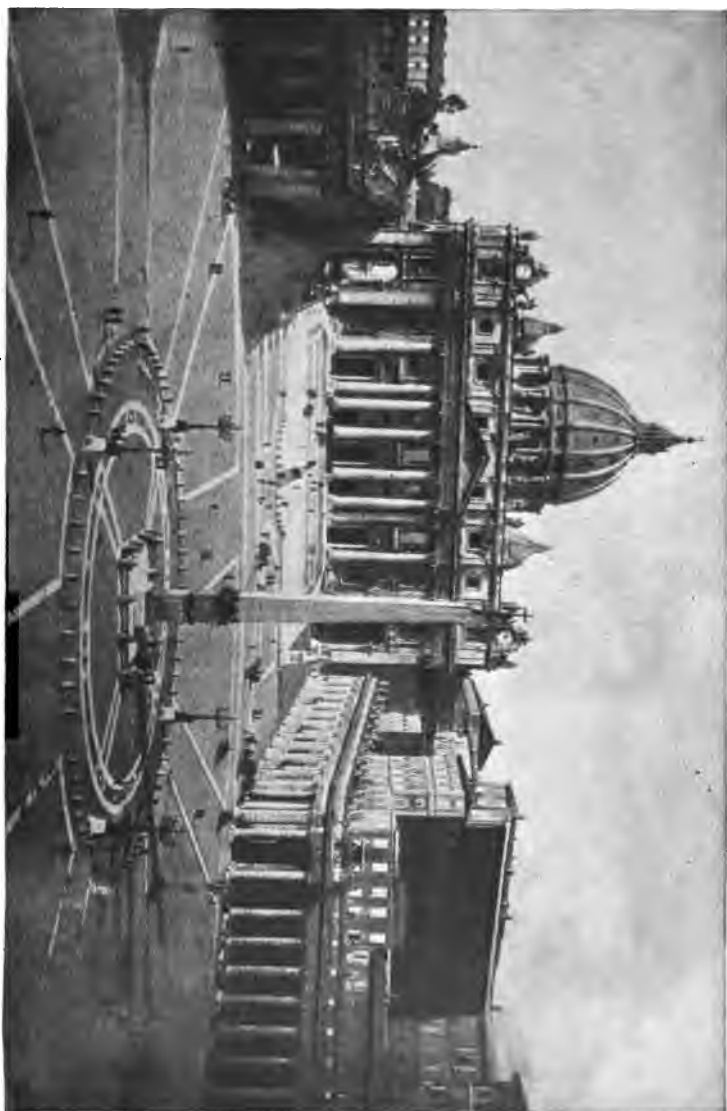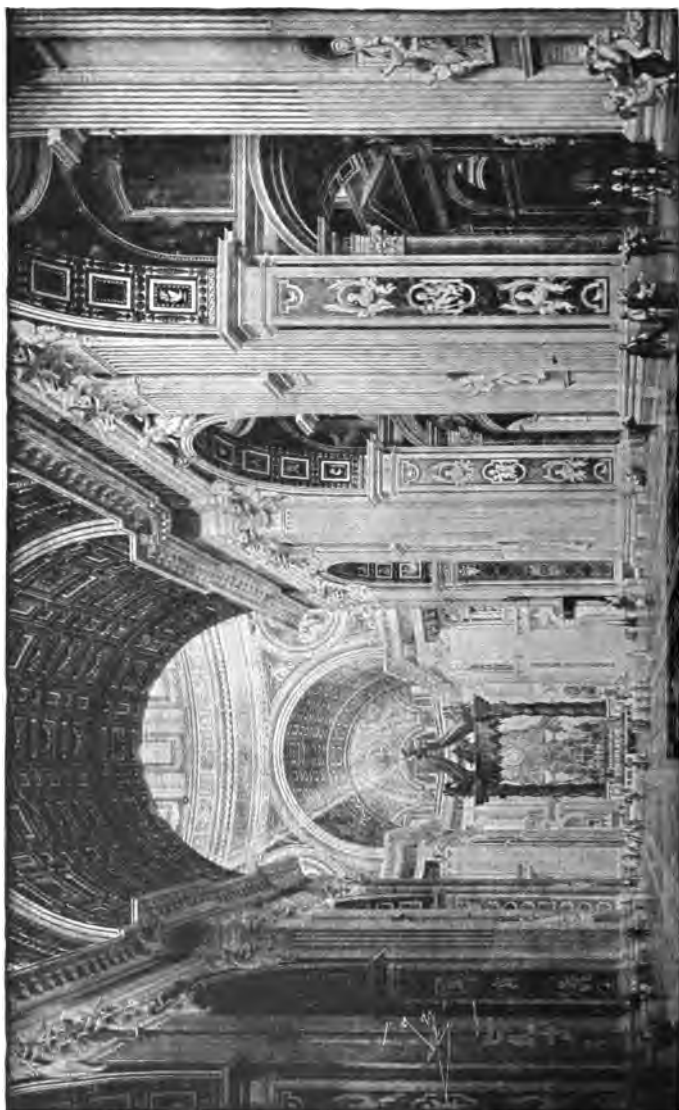
INTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S CHURCH, ROME

that from this time we find painting regaining qualities of beauty and naturalness, and that, as a result of the study of the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, sculpture became once more one of the fine arts. Just about this time, also, great advance was made in the knowledge of mixing colors so as to produce lasting and life-like effects.

A visitor to Italy to-day will find in every important city traces of the work of several great artists and sculptors, among whom none are more famous than Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, and Michael Angelo. Raphael, who lived only thirty-seven years, produced no paintings which are not ranked among the world's masterpieces of art. He resided at Florence and later at Rome, where he was employed by the pope to assist in the decoration of the Vatican, the papal palace. There may be seen many of his greatest works of art, among them " The Transfiguration," one of the grandest of all paintings. A painting almost equally famous is "The Last Supper," painted on the wall of a church at Milan by Leonardo da Vinci, who was also an architect of great fame. The greatest of the three was their contemporary, Michael Angelo, a Florentine, who decorated the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican with wonderful frescoes, among them " The Last Judgment," a painting as great as " The Transfiguration." He also supervised the building of St. Peter's Church at Rome during the administrations of four popes, and is regarded as one of the greatest sculptors of all time. Other great painters were Titian, a Venetian, famed for the ruddy golden hair of his feminine subjects, Holbein of Germany, Rubens of Holland, Van Dyck of Flanders, and Velasquez of Spain, all of whom are chiefly famous for their portraits of contemporary rulers or noted persons.

Great Figures of the Artistic Renaissance

Europe saw a wonderful progress in the art of music at the close of the middle ages. The two instruments most familiar to us were developed, the violin and the piano. The viol, a flat backed instrument, fretted like a guitar, and played with a bow, was altered into the gracefully shaped violin, far better adapted to take its

The Musical Renaissance

place as the monarch of instruments. The earliest forms of the piano were the clavichord and harpsichord. The harpsichord was a piano-shaped instrument in which the strings were plucked by quills, instead of being struck with hammers. The clavichord resembled the harpsichord, except that the strings were struck from below with a thin triangular piece of metal. The piano is really a third type in the manner in which the tone is produced.

During the middle ages instrumental music had not been developed as a separate form of the art. It had been the servant of vocal music. With the improved instruments invented toward the close of the renaissance, instrumental music came into its own, thus making possible its wonderful development in modern times, both as a separate art and as an accompaniment of vocal music.

ERASMUS

Another great discovery in music was counterpoint, the art of constructing music by combining one or more accompanying parts with the melody or tune. This discovery made possible the development of modern part singing. At the close of the renaissance period harmony was invented. All these discoveries have contributed to the formation of modern music.

Great Figures of the Literary Renaissance

Italy led Europe in literature even earlier than in painting and music. Before the people of northern Europe had made their languages suitable for the expression of great literature, Petrarch,[1] an Italian clergyman living in Avignon, collected with loving care the works of the classical writers, and wrote most beautiful poems. "What life dost thou live?" asks Petrarch in his Imaginary Letter to Vergil, "Hast thou been welcomed

[1] See also page 282.

by the wandering Aeneas, and hast thou passed by the ivory portal? Or, rather, dost thou dwell in that quiet region of heaven which receives the famous? " In this passage is expressed the spirit of the Renaissance, with its profound feeling for the past and its determination to reconcile it with the present. While Petrarch was writing thus, in England Chaucer was writ-

DANTE

ing his Canterbury Tales and Langland was giving us " Piers Plowman," with its cry for sincerity and equality; and Boccaccio, another Italian, was relating witty stories in his native tongue, laying bare the frivolous life of the day. Somewhat later, but before the flowering of English drama, Tasso wrote his great epics on the Crusades and on the deeds of the paladins of Charlemagne. Another great poet of Italy was Dante, who, although preferring Latin to Italian, gave to the world his " Divine

Comedy " in Italian. Dante, who lived in the century before Petrarch, because of his great love of Latin may be considered as the forerunner of the humanists, as the lovers of classical study were called, from the Latin word *humanitas* meaning " culture." Another great humanist was Erasmus, who spent much of his time in England during the life of his friend, Sir Thomas More. Erasmus was concerned at the condition of the church in his day

COMPARISON OF THE WORLD TO-DAY WITH THE WORLD OF COLUMBUS'S TIME

and did not hesitate to attack the ignorance and sloth of many of the clergy; but he did not favor violent changes, and hence was not in sympathy with the German humanists who supported Martin Luther in his war against the church. Sir Thomas More, another devout humanist, was prominent in the political history of England during the reign of Henry VIII, the second Tudor king. In his famous book, " Utopia," the land of no-where, he pictured an ideal country where the suffering and poverty of his own times were prevented.

98. The Age of Great Discoveries and Inventions. — About a half century before Columbus sailed out into the unknown ocean, Constantinople, the last outpost of Europe against the invading hosts of Mohammedans, was captured by the Ottoman Turks, a Mongol people, who have since retained it as the capital of the Turkish empire in Europe.   Wave after wave of invasion swept the Christians back to the Danube, and for many generations the Turks threatened the very heart of western Europe. Hostile in all things to the civilization of the West, the Turks closed the routes through the Black Sea by which European traders brought the spices and other products of the Far East. *Need for Geographical Activity at this Time*

PART OF AN ASIATIC CARAVAN

In an age when meat was the chief article of diet and refrigerators unknown, it was necessary to use spices to preserve and often to disguise the taste of meats.

The idea that the world is round was known to many ancient writers on geography, but the medieval scientists, basing their teachings upon the poetic imagery of the Bible, opposed any such idea.   The printing press was of incalculable value in spreading scientific truth and the refining influence of the new learning, because many copies of the works of the great Greek thinkers could be printed in much less time than it took the medieval historiographer to copy one illuminated page of a manuscript. *Spread of Scientific Truth*

Navigators were already trying to find new fields of trade or new routes to the old fields.   Under the patronage of Prince

Henry the Navigator, of Portugal, they coasted along the African coast, voyage after voyage, discovering Cape Verde, Sierra Leone, and under Diaz reaching the Cape of Good Hope five years before Columbus discovered America. These explorations were carried further by Vasco da Gama, who reached Calicut (not Calcutta), India, in 1498.

The Great Discoverers   Columbus gave a new world to Europe to colonize and for trade, and furnished Spain her claim to the new world, while

STRAITS OF MAGELLAN
The little ship was drawn from a model of Magellan's ship.

the conquests of Pizarro in South and Cortez in Central America gave Spain her richest colonies. Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, accidentally discovered the coast of Brazil while running southward to avoid storms, and thus gave Portugual her claim to Brazil, which she held until the nineteenth century. Another Portuguese captain, Magellan, while in the employ of Spain, was the first European to circumnavigate South America and to cross the Pacific. Had not Magellan lost his

life in a skirmish with the Filipinos, Sir Francis Drake, an English captain, would not have earned the credit for the first complete circumnavigation of the globe.   Verrazano, a Florentine in the service of Francis I of France, sailed into the harbors of the future sites of New York and Newport and explored the Atlantic coast from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia; and Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the site of Montreal, thus establishing the French claim to North America.   Prior to these men the Cabots, Italians employed by Henry VII, had established the English right to the Atlantic seaboard while Columbus was on his third voyage to the West Indies.

These voyages would have been impossible if improvements had not been made in the science of navigation.   The mariner's compass enabled these captains to keep to a true course, while at the same time an advance in shipbuilding was made.   Ships were built of greater tonnage and accordingly were able to make longer voyages.   Similar progress was made in other sciences. Copernicus, or Kupernik, a Polish philosopher, taught that the sun, not the earth, is the center of the universe.   Galileo, an Italian, was persecuted for advancing the heretical doctrine that the earth moved around the sun.   These men were the founders of modern astronomy.   Commercial relations with the Chinese introduced in Europe many of the useful inventions employed by the clever yellow men.

Invention Aided Discovery

99. Summary of the Close of the Middle Ages. — In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries a series of wars wasted England and France which resulted in England's loss of her territories south of the Loire River.   The plague which accompanied this war began a series of social changes of far-reaching importance.   The schism in the church, which began with the Babylonian captivity, caused a growth of heresy in England and in Bohemia, which was hardly checked by the governments.   The strife for church supremacy now shifted from the state to the church council against the pope.   The time was one of change and transition, as is shown by the rebirth of interest in learning

and art known as the renaissance, and by the geographical dis-
coveries and inventions. Meanwhile the leading nations of
Europe gained a feeling of nationality.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR
FURTHER REFERENCES

On the map of England and France show the territories of England in
France at the beginning of the Hundred Years' War; locate London, Rouen,
Calais, Avignon, Paris, Rheims; show the territories of the Count of Flanders;
locate Crécy, Poitiers, Bretigny; show the territorial arrangements of the
Treaty of Bretigny; locate Agincourt, Orleans, Wakefield, St. Albans, Barnet,
Tewkesbury, Bosworth, Bristol. Show England's possessions in France at
close of these wars. On a map of central Europe, including Italy, locate
the three zones into which Italy was divided; locate Rome, Avignon, Pisa,
Bohemia, the medieval empire, Constance, Florence, Milan, Genoa, Venice.

On a map of the world show the routes of the explorers mentioned in
this chapter.

Collect for your note-books pictures of the famous men of the renais-
sance, and of their works.

Tell about the life in England as described in Chaucer. Relate how the
printing press was introduced into England. Describe tactics of medieval
warfare as illustrated in the battle of Crécy.

TOPICAL READINGS

(The following topics are to be found in Trevelyan's *England in the Age of
Wyclif:* Longmans.) England's medieval sea power, 52–56; Livery and
maintenance, 58–80; The Babylonian captivity of the church, 75–80;
Wyclif and the English church, 140–42, 169–82; The peasant's revolt, 209–
23, 223–52; Lollardry in London, 327–331. (Beard gives a reference from
Trevelyan on the life of Wyclif.)

(The following topics are to be found in Cheyney's *Readings.*) Events
of the Hundred Years' War, 233; Through the Treaty of Bretigny, 249;
Quarrel over appointments from Rome, 249–55; Black Death, 255–58;
Peasants' revolt, 258–66; Wyclif and the Lollards, 266–71; English lan-
guage and literature, 272–75; Growth of powers of parliament, 279–83;
Henry V, 283–89; Joan of Arc, 289–95; Wars of the Roses, 296–305; Re-
port of voyage of Cabot, 311–14.

(The following topics are based on Synge, *Social Life in England,* Barnes.)
Depopulation, 99–121; Church and people in the fifteenth century,
123–33.

(The following topics are based on Curtler, *Short History of Agriculture,*
Oxford Press.) The fourteenth century, decline of agriculture, black death,
statute of laborers, 38–47.

(The following topics are based on Fordham, *Short History of English Rural Life:* Scribners.)   The growth of freedom, pp. 49–65;   Civilization and its effect on rural life, pp. 66–71.

(The following source studies are to be found in Tuell and Hatch, *Readings in English History*, Ginn.)   The battle of Crécy, pp. 147–55;   The siege of Calais, pp. 156–61;   Edward the Black Prince, pp. 161–71;   The voyages of John Cabot, pp. 172–77.

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(The following topics are based on Tickner, *Social and Industrial History of England:* Longmans.)   Changes in country life, commutation of services, famine and plague, Black Death, statute of laborers, peasants' revolt, 148–60;   The making of books, Chaucer, Langland, Caxton, 197–205;   The renaissance, scientific discoveries, geographical discoveries, changes in trade routes, pp. 218–29.

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the renaissance, pp. 474–90;   Relation of the antiquity to the renais-
sance, pp. 524–46.

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(The best account of conditions in Europe that led to the great geo-
graphical discoveries of the age.)

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. I, Chapters XVI and XVII: Macmillan.
(A very complete and scholary account of the renaissance.)

Sichel, *The Renaissance:* Holt.   (An excellent brief account.)

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas.*   The Wool-raising Districts of England and
Wool-manufacturing Towns of Flanders, p. 76;   Europe at Time of
Peace of Bretigny, pp. 77;   France Time of Henry V, p. 81;   The Great
Schism, p. 81;   England and France Reign of Henry VIII, p. 84;   Italy
about 1494, p. 90;   Ecclesiastical Map of Europe in Middle Ages,
pp. 94–95;   Plan of Rome in the Middle Ages, p. 96;   Discovery and
Exploration, pp. 105–11.

Munro and Sellery, *Medieval Civilization:* Century.   Chivalry, pp. 240–47;
Development of the Romance languages, pp. 310–25;   Life and in-
terests of the medieval students, pp. 348–57;   Medieval city life, pp.
358–65;   The intellectual movement of the thirteenth century, pp.
458–73.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF ENGLISH RULERS WITH THEIR
PRINCIPAL CONTEMPORARIES

BURGUNDY FLANDERS	THE EMPIRE AUSTRIA	SPAIN ARAGON CASTILE	ENGLAND	SCOTLAND	FRANCE

Charles VII
Louis XI

Charles VIII
(succeeded by his cousin)
Louis XII
(succeeded by his cousin)
Francis I

Henry II = Catharine
de Medici

Henry IV = Margaret
(of Navarre)

Louis XIII
Louis XIV

Charles V (the bold)

Mary = Maximilian (emperor)
Philip of Burgundy = Joan (the insane)

Ferdinand = Isabella

Katharine (of Aragon) (1) =
Arthur
Henry VIII = (3) Jane Seymour
= (2) Anne Boleyn

Henry VII (Tudor)

Margaret = James IV
James V

Mary
Frances
*Mary I Elizabeth Edward VI
Lady Jane Gray

Ferdinand I (emperor)

Charles V (emperor)

Lord Darnley (2) = Mary Stuart = (1) Francis II Charles IX Henry III

Philip II = *Mary I
(Spain, America, Portugal, Netherlands)

James VI of Scotland and I of England

*Henrietta Maria

Frederick Elector Palatine = Elizabeth

Sophia = Ernest of Hanover
George I
George II
Frederick, Prince of Wales
George III

Charles I = Henrietta Maria*

Mary = William of Orange

Charles II = Mary of Modena (2) James II = (1) Anne Hyde
James Edward (The old pretender)

Anne I
William III (of Orange)

Mary II =

* The same person.

DOMINIONS OF
CHARLES V. AND HIS
BROTHER FERDINAND
PRIOR TO 1555

Lands inherited from Ferdinand and Isabella of
Spain, and from Mary of Burgundy, together
with additions in the Netherlands, made by
Charles in pink. The outline of the Empire, in
yellow. Hapsburg lands granted by Charles to
Ferdinand and increased by Ferdinand, in green.
Smaller territories of the Hapsburgs in South-
ern Germany cannot be exactly indicated on a
map of this size. See Droysen, Handatlas, p.36;
Lane-Poole, Historical Atlas, pp. 38, 39.

PRUSSIA

POLAND

BRANDENBURG

Elbe

BOHEMIA

HUNGARY

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Danube

Buda Pesth

Vienna Pressburg

Prague

AUSTRIA

BAVARIA

Danube

ENGLAND

Amsterdam
Utrecht
Haarlem
The Hague

NETHERLAND

Rhine

Luxemburg
Trèves
LORRAINE
Nancy

Cologne

Paris

FRANCE

O. BURGUNDY

Dijon

Nice
Nîmes

Toulouse
Carcassonne
Narbonne
LION

Montpellier

SAVOY

VENICE

Milan
Genoa
Ravenna

STATES OF THE CHURCH

TUSCANY

Rome

CORSICA

ELBA

SARDINIA

TWO SICILIES

Naples
Salerno
Amalfi

Palermo

MESSINA
Syracuse

MALTA

Lepanto

AFRICA

TUNIS

Longitude East from Greenwich

Montpellier

ARAGON

Barcelona
Zaragoza

MINORCA

MAJORCA

Alicante

Cartagena

CASTILE

LEON

Madrid
Toledo
Burgos
Ebro R.

ASTURIAS

Douro R.

Valladolid

Tagus R.

Cordova
Seville
Granada
Gibraltar

PORTUGAL

Lisbon

Algiers

THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION

100. — Europe at the Opening of the Protestant Reformation. **Creation of the Spanish Monarchy** —The Spanish monarchy began in a marriage compact. When Ferdinand of Aragon came to the throne the Spanish peninsula was divided into the states of Aragon, Castile, and Leon in the north, and Portugal and Granada in the south. The marriage of Ferdinand to Isabella of Castile and Leon began the process of unification of the peninsula. Granada, the kingdom of the Mohammedan Moors, was conquered by the two rulers the same year that Columbus sailed to America under their patronage. For the purpose of crushing all religious faiths except those of the orthodox or state church, Isabella revived the Court of the Inquisition to try all persons accused of heresy. This religious persecution caused the Moors to leave Spain in order **Banishment of the Moors: Effects** that they might retain their own faith, and since they were the most skilful artisans in Spain, commerce and industry as a result suffered a severe blow. Many were put to death whose only offence was the divergence of their religious views from those of the state.

At the fall of the House of Hohenstaufen (see p. 189), Sicily **Empire of Charles V** had been granted to Pedro of Aragon, from whom Ferdinand inherited the Spanish claim to the southern part of Italy and Sicily. Ferdinand's daughter Joanna, heiress to the throne, was married to Philip, Duke of Burgundy, son of Emperor Maximilian. Philip died while his son Charles was still an infant. The aged Emperor Maximilian so arranged matters in Germany that at his death the diet elected Charles emperor. As Emperor Charles V, therefore, the young Charles before

he reached the age of twenty, held sway over dominions even more extensive than those of Charlemagne. He was ruler of the Spanish peninsula, with its vast territorial claims in America; Duke of Burgundy, with its vassal states in the " Low Countries," famed for their manufacturing wealth; Archduke of Austria; emperor of the German Empire; and king of the Two Sicilies. (See table, p. 302, for relationships.)

Three Problems of Charles's Reign

For all his power Charles V had three difficult problems to face: the Turks menaced his eastern possessions; France disputed his supremacy in Italy; finally, the Protestant Reformation began within his dominions. The Turkish sultan at this time was Suleiman the Great. His possessions extended from Egypt to Hungary and included all the ports on the Red, Black, and eastern Mediterranean seas. To aid his ally,

CHARLES V

Suleiman the Great

the king of France, Suleiman with an enormous army besieged Vienna, the capital of the archduchy of Austria, and was with difficulty repelled by the Austrians. During his lifetime the power of the Turk was greatly feared by the Christians, but at the close of his reign the Turkish empire became weak, and from that time has steadily declined to its condition to-day.

The process of centralizing the government of France, which began with Philip Augustus (see p. 228), and the uniting of the various provinces under a strong and absolute monarchy, was completed during the fifteenth century. The powerful dukes and counts and been forced to bow to the king's authority, and Provence, Burgundy, and later Brittany were brought under the direct rule of the king. Secure within their own boundaries, it is not strange that several French rulers dreamed of foreign

conquests. The first of these kings was the grandson of that Charles VII who owed his crown to Joan of Arc.

This grandson, Charles VIII, revived a claim to the kingdom of Naples and Sicily and invaded Italy. Although he was opposed by Ferdinand of Spain, the Emperor Maximilian, Pope Alexander VI, and the petty tyrants of many Italian cities, he was for a time successful, owing to the lack of confidence each of the allies felt in the others, and to the welcome given him by the Italians, who were trying to overturn the governments of the tyrants; but his army was not used to the luxurious living of the Italians and soon lost its effectiveness. Charles was then forced to retreat from Italy. His invasion had greater influence on the development of France than on Italy, because, as this was the period of the intellectual and artistic supremacy of Italy, western Europe received the fruits of the Italian renaissance, heretofore confined to the peninsula. *Charles VIII invades Italy*

1494

Effect of his Invasion on Europe

Francis I, the distant cousin of Charles VIII, who came to the throne in 1515, revived the French claim to Italy. Handsome and graceful, he posed as the "gentleman king" and as the patron of the renaissance in France. After a brilliant passage of the Alps he defeated the allied army and captured Milan. Pope Leo X, a son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, made a treaty with Francis, the Concordat of 1516, which gave Francis the right to appoint all high clerics in France. In return for the papal permission to annex Milan, Francis agreed to aid the pope in regaining Florence for the family of the Medici. So it was with Francis I that Charles V had to contend in Italy. From his father Charles inherited a claim to Burgundy, which had been annexed to France by Louis XI, and from his grandfather, Maximilian, a claim to Milan. *Francis I of France makes the Concordat of 1516 with the Pope*

101. Germany on the Eve of the Protestant Revolution. — The fifteenth century saw a growth of national feeling in England, France, and Spain. In France the factional war between the Burgundians and Armagnacs and the prolonged strife with

England ended in a burst of patriotic feeling which strength-
ened the French monarchy. In England the Wars of the Roses
closed with the accession of Henry Tudor and the subsequent
centralization of authority in the king. In Spain the marriage
of Ferdinand and Isabella and the conquest of the Moors paved
the way for the despotism of Charles V and his son, Philip II.
The Holy Roman Empire established by Otto in the tenth
century had developed no such strength as its rivals. This
was due to a lack of national feeling among the diverse races
under its rule. As Voltaire, a French writer of the eighteenth
century wittily said, it was neither holy, Roman, nor an empire.
It was constantly at variance with the established authorities
of the church; it was ruled by German princes in the interest
of Germans states; and it consisted of a number of states whose
rulers possessed more actual power than did the emperor.

Seven or more of these petty rulers claimed the right of
electing the emperor and constituted the electoral diet. After
the downfall of the Hohenstaufen family the imperial authority
was claimed by several of the higher nobility, and in 1273, in
order to restore peace, the electors decided to choose for their
ruler a man who would rouse neither fear nor jealousy. Their
choice, Count Rudolph of Hapsburg, proved much more able

**Rudolph of
Hapsburg**

than they had dreamed. Instead of resuming the vain strug-
gle to reunite the utterly dissimilar parts of the empire, Italy
and Germany, he wisely resolved to make himself head of the
German princes and to leave Italy to the pope. By so doing
he won the aid of the papacy in his war to recover some of his
ancestors' domain from the king of Bohemia. Some of his
successors were more successful in carrying out his policy and
built up an important dominion out of the Hapsburg posses-
sions, which was the chief factor in keeping the title in their
house.

The two causes of decentralization were, first, the lack of
system concerning the election of the emperor, which had
resulted in frequent contests for the imperial title, and hence,

second, lack of respect for the emperor. In order to counter-
act these evils an imperial law was enacted which is called the
Golden Bull. The number of electors thereafter was to be seven
— four lay princes (the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Saxony
the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the Count of the Rhenish
Palatinate) and three ecclesiastical princes (the Archbishops of
Treves, Maintz, and Cologne). The members of this diet met
at Frankfort. They had higher rank than other princes of the
empire and their lands could not be divided, but must descend
to the eldest son or elected successor of the former elector. The
importance of this law on the development of Germany in the
fourteenth and fifteenth centuries cannot be easily measured.
It is certain that it gave to the electoral princes far greater
power than they had hitherto exercised, and that it was, on
that account, an important reason for the failure of German
unity.

The Germany of Charles V was made up of several hundred
states, varying in size from the territory of a single city, such
as Hamburg, or the hereditary estate of a knight, to those
of a duchy like Bavaria, or a kingdom like Bohemia. For a
number of generations the imperial title had been held by the
head of the Hapsburg family, the archdukes of Austria, but the
powers of the emperor were extremely shadowy and mostly
honorary. The political weakness of Germany was intensified
by the strong class feeling. The people were divided into
nobles with large territories, knights with a single castle or
manor, freemen of the towns or burghers, and serfs. The
knights hated the oppression of the nobles, but were unable
to hinder it; in revenge they were driven to rob and abuse
those weaker than themselves. Many knights along the Rhine
made their entire living by demanding tolls from passing mer-
chants and travelers — a species of highway robbery. The
burghers, snug in their wealthy town homes, envied the political
supremacy of the nobles; while the nobles reciprocated by
envying the wealth of the townsmen and seeking by every hook

or crook to deprive them of it.   Beneath them all the serf
labored on almost hopelessly: everyone took it for granted
that the serf had to suffer; yet forces were then operating to
better his condition — the renaissance was beginning in north-
ern Europe.

The conditions in the church which encouraged the growth
of heresy were these: luxurious and extravagant living on the
part of many of the higher clergy; excessive taxation to meet
the cost of this living; and the weakening of the moral purpose
of many clergymen, or, in other words, a decline in strict living
and hard thinking.   These evils, as well as others, had long
been recognized.   The various church councils mentioned above
had considered them.   Wyclif, Huss, and many other earnest
men in the church had tried individually to call attention to
them and to correct them.   The German humanists attacked
the methods and subjects of instruction in the universities,
which were all controlled by the church, alleging that the very
men who should have been the leaders in education were be-
coming shiftless and careless in their lives and in their learn-
ing.   The writings of the humanists did much to prepare the
way for Luther, and they were his chief supporters in the
attack on the monastic orders.

**102. Life and Work of Martin Luther to the Diet of
Worms.** — Whether one regards the Protestant Reformation
as a step forward or as a serious setback to the progress of
mankind, it is necessary to accept the work of Martin Luther
as having had a profound influence on the later history of
European civilization.

Early Life of
Luther, 1483

" In the old days when Columbus was meditating his mo-
mentous voyage and Richard III was about to murder his
nephews in the Tower," Martin Luther was born of peasant
parents, who were very ambitious for his future.   He studied
in various monastic schools and then entered Erfurt University,
where he first became acquainted with the new learning, but he
preferred the scholastic method.   At his father's request he

began the study of law, after graduating with high honors from his university. After two months' study he abandoned law for theology and entered an Augustinian monastery, where he was so zealous in observing all fasts, penances, and other requirements that his health broke down. He welcomed the invitation of a brother monk to make a pilgrimage to Rome, but the decline of spiritual ideals there dissatisfied and shocked him.

Soon after his return he was offered the professorship of theology at Witten-berg, where he lectured on the Bible. In the study necessary to prepare these lectures he became converted to human-ism, and in his revolt from the teach-ings of Aristotle, so conspicuous in the scholastic system, he urged his friends to study the Bible and the works of the early church fathers, especially those of Augustine. It was at this time that he became acquainted with many humanists.

MARTIN LUTHER

Luther as a Humanist

A few years later he publicly attacked the teachings of the church. The circumstances were as follows: In order to obtain money for completing the magnificent church of St. Peter at Rome, Pope Leo X issued indulgences, papal decrees remit-ting the penalties which sinners would have to undergo in Purgatory. Indulgences were purchased by devout members of the church, who paid according to their means in order that the soul of some dead friend or dear one might have release from suffering. The indulgences were based on the idea that there is a spiritual treasury of good works in which is recorded every good deed or religious service done on earth, and upon this treasury the needy souls of the dead might draw to balance their accounts of good and evil deeds. The theory of indul-gences was a beautiful one; unfortunately a few church of-ficials, eager to collect more money for the pope, urged everyone

The Theory of Indulgences

to provide himself with one of these indulgences, misleading the people to believe that the church remitted guilt for sins to those who purchased indulgences — an idea entirely contrary to the doctrines of the church.

The Ninety-five Theses 1517   In answer to the mistaken conception of indulgences preached by Tetzel, a monk who was then engaged in selling them, Luther drew up a document containing ninety-five theses, or statements, and posted it upon a door of the church in Wittenberg.   Among the propositions set forth therein were these: first, preachers of indulgences are wrong in saying that an indulgence frees a man from the punishment for sin; second, the man who gives to the poor and needy does better than he who buys indulgences; third, the pope, if he knew the methods of the sellers of indulgences, would not countenance them; fourth the raising of money in such a way suggests the question that, since the pope is the wealthiest ruler in Christendom, why does he not use his own resources for the completion of St. Peter's?   When accused of attacking the power of the pope, Luther replied in a letter to the pope affirming his loyalty to the papacy.

For two years the papal party made vain efforts to induce Luther to visit Rome to recant (deny) the ninety-five theses, but the pope was unable to bring any pressure to bear on the Wittenberg professor, perhaps because of the political tangles of the day.   In 1519 the old emperor, Maximilian, died and the pope was much concerned in regard to his successor.   It soon appeared that Luther did not at heart accept the papal supremacy.   In a debate arranged between a champion of the orthodox views and Luther and his partisans, the monk, Eck,

Debate at Leipsic   forced Luther to take a stand outside of the church.   Luther declared a church council superior to the pope, and this belief Eck proved was the very heresy for which Huss had been convicted.   Within a year Luther wrote: " I have hitherto taught and held all the opinions of John Huss unawares; we are all Hussites without knowing it."

When Eck returned from Rome, bringing with him a papal bull ordering Luther to recant, the latter boldly attacked the papacy by publicly burning a copy of the papal bull and of the church laws. Luther became recognized by all classes as the leader of a nationalist movement to liberate Germany from the dictation of the pope. "Luther himself was astonished at the almost universal response to his appeal. The course of events reacted on him, hurrying him along from a position of humble protest to the leadership of all the revolutionary forces of the time." Such an open and spectacular attack upon the church provoked Charles V to summon a diet of the empire at Worms to consider what attitude the government should take toward this movement.

Luther burns the Papal Bull

103. The Diet of Worms and it Consequences. — Charles had been elected emperor, defeating Francis I and another candidate for the office. He was a devout Catholic, and his plodding mind disliked changes in faith. He felt that, if the Germans succeeded in freeing themselves from his leadership in matters of religion, they might attempt to win political independence as well; but owing to the friendship felt for Luther by powerful German princes, he desired to act cautiously. Charles, after considering and rejecting a plan proposed by Luther and endorsed by Erasmus to call Luther before a specially constituted court of impartial churchmen, decided to summon him to attend the imperial diet, then in session at Worms. Having received the emperor's promise of safe-conduct while in attendance, Luther set out from Wittenberg with the good wishes of his university and town.

Election of the Emperor

Early in 1521 Luther appeared before the emperor and his diet at Worms. "Few moments in history have been so dramatic and so decisive as that in which Luther appeared before the emperor. . . . The proceedings were short and simple. An officer first warned the prisoner at the bar that he must say nothing except in answer to the questions asked him." He was then asked if he had written the books attacking the

Luther before the Diet

papacy, and whether he still believed the statements he had
set down therein, or was willing to recant.   In reply Luther
acknowledged the books, but unwilling to answer the second
part of the question without being allowed to defend his views
in debate, requested a day's delay.   On the following day Luther
gave his answer: " Unless I am convinced by Scripture or by
right reason, I neither can nor will recant anything."   Be-
cause he had the emperor's promise of safe-conduct he was
allowed to depart without hindrance.   Upon his way home he
was seized by a party of his friends and taken to the strong
castle of Wartburg, where he spent the next few months hidden
from the officers of the empire.

Luther is banned by the Empire   Already excommunicated from the church, Luther was at
once pronounced an outlaw by the diet in the Edict of Worms.
An outlaw, or man under the ban of the empire, could neither
be sheltered nor fed by a loyal subject.   The diet declared
Luther's teachings a mass of heresies and forbade anyone
printing, selling, or reading his books.

Revolution and Disorder in Germany   Luther's teachings were eagerly seized upon by the discon-
tented of all classes.   Monks left their monasteries, broke
their vows, and appropriated the property belonging to the
church.   Zealous knights turned the situation to their own
advantage by making war upon princes.   Throughout Germany
revolution began to lift its head.   At Regensburg a diet of the
Catholic princes formed an agreement to stand together against
the inroads of the new doctrines in their states, and made
plans for reform within the church.   Scarcely had this diet
adjourned when a rebellion broke out among the peasants,
who demanded reforms in government and church.   Peasant
revolts were not uncommon during the middle ages; for ex-
ample the peasants' revolt in England in the fourteenth cen-
tury, that " gigantic strike of English laborers."   Luther himself
had told the nobles that the times when they could act
tyrannically had passed away.   The demands of the German
peasants, as expressed in the Twelve Articles, do not seem

excessive. They asked that each parish be allowed to choose its own pastor, that serfdom be abolished, that taxes and forced labor be reduced, and that many of the old free German customs be restored to them. But the leaders were unable to restrain the peasants from acts of violence and murder, and there ensued a terrible social war. For a time it seemed as if the rebels would overturn the existing order of things; even Luther's protector, the Elector of Saxony, said that if it was the will of God that the peasant rule, he would not resist. Dismayed at the state of anarchy, Luther sided with the government against the common people, declaring that the demand for the abolition of serfdom on religious grounds was unjustifiable. He urged the nobles to crush the revolt, thereby losing the confidence of the common people. The peasants were speedily overpowered by the rallied nobility, but Luther's work was done; it was left for his successors to carry on the reforming movement.[1]

The Peasants' Revolt

104. Charles V and the Protestant Revolt. — Soon after the diet at Worms, Charles V was obliged to cease considering the question of heresy and to busy himself against the attacks of his most dangerous rival, Francis I, who was then in alliance with the papacy. After a short campaign he defeated Francis and took him prisoner. The balance of power was now turned in favor of Charles. Francis sued for peace on humiliating terms, but soon was again at war, for the pope opposed the designs of Charles. At the instance of the pope, the Sultan Suleiman at this time invaded Austria, while the combined papal and French armies threatened Charles in Italy. Here the emperor showed his ability to command. His army struck swiftly at Rome, and the capital fell. Never, since the days of the barbarian invasions, had the papal city suffered such humiliation.

Attacks on Charles's Empire

While Charles was thus occupied in Italy, the first Diet of Speyer (1526) determined that each ruler should decide for

Diets of Speyer

[1] The quoted passages are from *The Life and Letters of Martin Luther* by Dr. P. Smith, Houghton Mifflin Co.

himself what religion should prevail in his own domain. Temporarily supreme in Italy, Charles turned his attention to Germany and attempted to enforce the legislation concerning Lutherans.   At the second Diet of Speyer (1529) he ordered his subjects to obey the Edict of Worms.   The Elector of Saxony and other princes protested against this action, from which circumstance the Lutheran party became known as Protestants.   To his brother Ferdinand, who had at last beaten back the Turks, Charles now gave his possessions in Austria. By marriage Ferdinand acquired Hungary and Bohemia, and thus founded the powerful state which has developed into the dual monarchy of to-day (Austria-Hungary).

Finding the Protestants too strong, Charles determined to ascertain their views in order that he might intelligently oppose them.   At the Diet of Augsburg the Protestants presented, in the famous Augsburg Confession, a complete statement of the views of the Lutheran Church.   For nearly a generation Charles vainly attempted to check the growth of Protestant belief.   In 1555 a religious peace was made between the Roman Catholic and Lutheran parties.   This compromise provided that each ruler could choose his own faith, and thereafter his subjects must adopt his religion or emigrate; but if an ecclesiastical prince adopted the new religion he must give up his lands to the church.   There were two points of weakness in this treaty.   It failed to recognize a new and rapidly increasing sect founded by John Calvin, and it provided no means of enforcing the clause concerning land.

In the same year, wearied with the many problems of his reign, Charles V resigned the throne and retired to a monastery, where the few remaining years of his life were spent.   Since 1546 the body of Martin Luther has been resting in the old church at Wittenberg, upon whose doors he had posted the declaration of independence of the German church.

105. Protestantism in France. — Francis I was as zealous in attempting to prevent the inroads of Protestantism in France

as was Charles V in Germany.   Among the Protestants of
France was John Calvin, who at the age of twelve had received
the education necessary for him to enter the priesthood.   At
twenty his father decided to make a lawyer of him.   During
his law course he studied under Lutheran teachers and became

attracted to Protestant
doctrines.   Driven from
France by the persecutions
begun by Francis I, Calvin
sought safety in Switzer-
land, a land ever known
for its liberty-loving people.
At Basle he published, at
the age of twenty-five, his
great theological work,
"The Institutes of
Christianity," which con-
tains a complete statement
of his religious views.   At
thirty-one he was chosen
by the city of Geneva
to make important reforms

JOHN CALVIN

in its government and to defend it from the attack of
the Catholic party.   For twelve years, until his death in
1564, he maintained a rigid control over the city by means
of a consistory composed of the pastors of the city churches
and of twelve elders elected by the city council.   The consis-
tory nominally supervised the morals of the city, but it actually
ruled the city.   Every sin was regarded as a crime against
the state, while the penalties were exceedingly severe.   All
were compelled to attend church services.   Calvin was as
severe in condemning frivolity as Savonarola had been.   Men
were punished for wearing gay clothes, for dancing, even for
laughing at Calvin's sermons.   It is not strange that heresy
to the new faith was punished with proportionate severity.

An attack upon the church and the teachings of Calvin was equally an attack upon the state. Two men were condemned to death for heresy, and one of them was burned at the stake. The rule by elders, or presbyters, gave rise to the name applied to the church founded by Calvin; namely, the Presbyterian Church. The work of Calvin was of enormous importance in shaping English, Dutch, French, and American history. His beliefs were eagerly accepted by the Dutch, who passed them on to the English. John Knox, a sturdy Scotchman, took them home to combat the Catholicism of Mary Stuart. The English Puritans carried the Calvinistic doctrines to America. His teachings overshadowed all other Protestant doctrines in France and caused the terrible religious wars that convulsed that country in the sixteenth century.

The Huguenots

During the reigns of the immediate successors of Francis I the Huguenots, as the French Calvinists were called, became very powerful politically. Many of them were wealthy manufacturers, and even some of the nobility adopted this faith.

Coligny

Their leader, Admiral Coligny, a member of one of the greatest of French noble families, secured many concessions from the government. He acted as the counsellor of the young king, Charles IX (see p. 317), and planned to unite the warring factions of France by means of a war with Spain. He saw clearly that the Reformation in France must be effected, if at all, by making it a political rather than a sectarian movement, and at first the King was favorable. At last the Catholic party persuaded the boy king to order a general massacre of the Protestants on St. Bartholomew's Eve in 1572. At a signal from the bell of the church of Saint Germain in Paris, the gates of the city were closed and all the Huguenots who could be found in the city were seized and killed, among them the noble Coligny. The news of the triumph of the Catholic faction was received with various emotions by the other nations of Europe. Philip II rejoiced to see heresy thus sternly rebuked; but everywhere the Protestants trembled for fear that

Political Phase of the French Reformation

St. Bartholomew's Eve

some new trouble would come upon them. Yet it should be clearly remembered that this was much more of a political persecution than a religious one, as it was to oust one political party from the control of the government and to put its rival in the saddle.

A war between factions again broke out in France, which **Civil War** lasted intermittently during the reigns of Charles IX and his brother, Henry III. Finally Henry III was murdered and his distant cousin and brother-in-law, Henry of Navarre, became king of France. Henry IV had been a Protestant, but in order to secure the throne he professed the Catholic faith. That he always was extremely tolerant is shown by the famous edict **Edict of** issued at Nantes in 1598, which provided that Protestants **Nantes** were to enjoy equal political rights with Catholics and that the Huguenots were to have the right to fortify and hold certain French towns. He regarded this last clause necessary in order to safeguard the Huguenots against another attack by their enemies, but from the viewpoint of statesmanship, it was a serious mistake, in that it created a class with certain privileges not possessed by other classes.

Henry IV was one of the ablest kings of France. He was an **Character and** indulgent father, a brilliant general, a far-sighted statesman, **Work of** a just king; on the other hand, his personal character was **Henry IV** open to grave criticism and his religious opinions were so broad that many people think he had none. His minister of finance was an honest and capable Huguenot named Sully, who realized the importance of building up the industries of France which had suffered during the long religious wars. He lowered taxes, improved roads, drained marshes, introduced new crops and taught the people how to grow them, and protected French manufactures from foreign competition. These improvements were heartily aided by Henry IV. Unfortunately for France, the king fell a victim to a fanatical assassin, and Sully retired from the management of the French finances.

The Jesuits

106. The Catholic Reformation and the Jesuits. — While reform was going on outside the church, conservative churchmen were reforming the church from within. ˗ Three agencies were important in effecting this reform. One was the Society of ˙Jesus, also known as the Jesuits; another was a series of church councils; the third was a church court called the Inquisition. A Spanish soldier, named Loyola, conceived the idea of forming a missionary order to be governed by a general, chosen for life by the society. While Loyola was not the first to command obedience, it having already been pointed out in the organization of the orders founded by St. Benedict and St. Francis of Assisi and many others (see p. 192), his military experiences convinced him of the value of discipline; therefore he made it a rule that the commands of the superiors in the order must be unquestioningly obeyed by all members.

Their Objects and Ideals

The object of the society was the reconversion of Europe and the conversion of the rest of the world to a better, purer, Roman Catholic doctrine. Its members chose the methods of teachers and missionaries and were found at the right hand of kings as councillors, in schools as instructors, in churches as preachers, and in the wilds of America, Africa, and Asia as explorers. The common opinion that they believed that the end justified the means used to attain it exposed them to the criticism that their methods were at times deceitful, but whatever evil may be attributed to them, the good they accomplished far outweighed the bad. From the standpoint of the Roman Catholic faith their work was of great importance. Because of their splendid organization and fighting spirit, they succeeded in checking the growth of heretical doctrines in France and Spain, and at the same time they founded flourishing missions in far-distant lands.

Constructive Reforms of the Council of Trent 1545; 1562-3

For nearly twenty years, at intervals, the conservative leaders labored at the Council of Trent to correct the evils of which the radicals complained and to formulate the position of the Roman Church. To the early session a few of the

German clergy believing in certain Protestant doctrines were admitted, but seeing themselves in the minority they returned to their homes, leaving the more orthodox to bring the council to a close. The measures of this council are of the utmost historical importance, in that they mark a decisive statement of the church upon all questions of belief and practice. The teachings of Luther were definitely condemned by the entire church, while at the same time most of the evils in the church, complained of by the radicals, were eliminated.

In 1542 the pope had authorized the creation of an ecclesiastical court of extraordinary jurisdiction, the supreme tribunal of the Inquisition, modelled after the court established by Ferdinand and Isabella, some sixty years before, for the purpose of checking the growth of heresy in their dominions. Six cardinals were named universal inquisitors over all Europe, and all members of the church, both high and low, were declared under their jurisdiction. No book could be published without their consent; they could inflict penalties of imprisonment, loss of property, even of death; from their judgment there was no appeal except to the pope. *The Inquisition*

107. The Revolt of the Netherlands. — The spread of Protestantism in the possessions of Charles V led to the revolt of the Netherlands from Spain. These seventeen provinces, situated where the modern states of Holland and Belgium are located, came to the Spanish ruler from the momentous marriage between Philip of Burgundy and Joan of Aragon. (See p. 303.) This " land of the dyke and windmill " contained many flourishing manufacturing towns whose wealth was great. They had endured the government of Charles V, partly because they felt that his interests and theirs were the same, and partly because he had been too much occupied with affairs in Germany and Italy to exercise a strict control over the inheritance he received from his father. But when Charles retired to his monastery and his Spanish-bred son, Philip II, reigned in his stead over them, they became estranged. This resent- *The Netherlands*

ment was increased when some of the most influential of the Dutch people presented a petition for governmental reform to Philip's sister, then acting as governor, and her courtiers advised her to dismiss it, saying, " Pay no heed to these beggars."

Their resentment led them to commit acts of reprisal, and armed bands of patriotic Dutchmen, both on land and sea, flaunted the word " Beggars " at the Spaniards until Philip was obliged to send his most able military governor, the Duke of Alva. This stern army officer saw but one side of the controversy, the king's, and his measures of increased taxation and of cruel correction of heresy roused the people to a war for independence from Spanish rule.

PHILIP II

The Inquisition was the weapon ready to the hand of Philip for the correction of the growing Calvinism in the Netherlands. Heretics were burned at the stake or buried alive; property was seized illegally; rich merchants were outrageously taxed; regular local governments were abolished, and in their place was erected a secret tribunal to try those suspected of disloyalty to Philip. Of this latter court, the " Council of Blood," it is related that one of its judges slept through the taking of testimony against accused persons, awakening in time to shout, "To the gallows with him."

Goaded to desperation, the Dutch revolted under the leadership of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, whose career resembled somewhat that of our own Washington. By nature he was dignified and reserved and he was at first loath to engage in a war against his king. The forces under his command were never large nor particularly well equipped; he won

few decisive victories.   After a series of reverses Alva was recalled and other generals took the field against William. The northern provinces formed a league, known as the United Provinces of the Netherlands, and chose William the Silent as hereditary president, but the southern provinces remained loyal to Philip. Like Lincoln, at the very moment of his triumph, William the Silent was shot by a fanatic, but his work survived him. Spain never again reconquered her lost provinces, and was at last forced reluctantly to recognize the independence of the Dutch Republic, which stood as a monument to the work of William the Silent and also as a tribute to the teachings of Calvin.

108. The Reformation in England. — In the days of Wyclif, long before the Reformation started on the continent, Englishmen had questioned the teachings of the established church, but the repressive policy of the government had checked and almost totally destroyed heresy. During the early stages of Luther's controversy the influence of Erasmus was so strong that England did not take kindly to the German doctrines. Erasmus was a great humanist who spent several years of his life as a professor at Cambridge University. Although a Dutchman by birth and a resident of one time or another at various other institutions of learning in France, Italy, and the Netherlands, his influence on English thought was especially strong. It is of interest to compare his views of the church with those of the German leader, Luther.

Reason why the Reform of the Church began Later in England than on the Continent

Erasmus believed in a reform in the church, but he had " a strong love of peace and a sincere horror of the tumult " raised by Luther. He believed that there was room within the Roman Church for both the extreme papal party and the enthusiastic reformers, and advised the latter to avoid stirring up an irremediable war and wait until the evils complained of by a church council could be ended. ·Although he was at first on terms of good understanding with Luther, the latter's violent and often ill-considered attack on the papacy alienated him

and caused him to criticize Luther severely. To Luther most things were either absolutely right or else entirely wrong, and he had little sympathy with the broader humanist who main-

CORONATION FESTIVITIES OF HENRY VIII AND KATHARINE OF ARAGON

tained that there is good in every man and that mankind, on the whole, is getting better.

From the foregoing it· is evident that Erasmus cannot be said to have started the reformation in England. That movement hinged upon the affairs of the son of Henry VII, Henry

VIII, who was never hostile to the doctrines of the Roman Church. Indeed the title of " Defender of the Faith " was given to him by the pope in reward for a furious attack made on Luther by the English monarch. Henry had married his brother Arthur's widow, Katharine of Aragon (for this and other marriages see p. 302), perhaps to keep her dowry in the family and to maintain the marriage alliance with Spain. After several years of married life Henry suddenly discovered that his marriage to Katharine was sinful, because the canon law forbade marriage to a deceased brother's widow. In arriving at this deci-

WOLSEY

sion Henry was influenced by two motives: he desired a male heir to the throne, whereas Katharine had presented him with daughters only, of whom all had died save one sickly little girl named Mary; in the second place, he had been attracted by the beauty and charm of a young lady of the court named Anne Boleyn. The Roman Church does not

sanction divorce, but as Henry had obtained from a former pope a special dispensation to marry Katharine, he sent his minister Wolsey to Rome to argue that the former pope had exceeded his authority in annulling this particular law of the church and that the present pope should so decide, in effect anulling the marriage. Unfortunately for Henry's plans, or perhaps for Wolsey, the pope just at that juncture was in the power of Charles V, Katharine's nephew, and even if he were willing to do so would scarcely have dared to offend the powerful emperor. Wolsey failed to secure the divorce, and soon after his return to England, he died of disgrace at his treatment by the king, who regarded him as personally responsible for the failure.

Steps in the Reformation

Unable to secure relief from the pope, Henry accepted the advice of Wolsey's successor in office, Thomas, Cromwell, and denied the authority of the pope over England. The clergy of England were forced to submit to the king's will and to sanction a divorce from Katharine. In deference to his wishes parliament passed the Act of Annates, forbidding the payment of annual taxes to the pope, and the Act of Supremacy, which recognized the king as the supreme head of the English Church.

Destruction of the Monasteries

Cromwell then urged the king to seize upon the lands of the monasteries. Greedy for wealth, on the pretext that the monks were leading wicked lives, Henry ordered the breaking up of the monastic orders and confiscated their lands and possessions. These he divided among his favorites, creating new patents of nobility; and these new nobles were naturally grateful to the king and supported him in all his policies. This serves to explain why the power of the monarchy increased until the later Tudors ruled almost absolutely.[1]

This hostility toward the organizations of the church extended in his reign to an attack upon the gilds, which greatly

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[1] The abolition of the monasteries diminished the number of spiritual lords in parliament by removing all abbots from office. There were left only the two archbishops and the numerous bishops.

STAGES OF THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION IN ENGLAND

NAME OF STAGE	ACCOMPLISHED BY	REIGN
Subordination of the church to the state	Submission of the clergy Act of Supremacy	Henry VIII
Separation from Rome	Act of Supremacy, Acts of Annates	Henry VIII
Attack on Church Organizations	Destruction of monasteries Changes in the gilds Abolition of chantries	Henry VIII Henry VIII Edward VI
Adoption of English for church purposes	Translation of the Bible into English Use of English in church services and the adoption of an English Prayer-book	Henry VIII Edward VI
Simplification of church ceremony	Removal of images, crucifix, and other portions of the Roman Catholic Church decoration	Edward VI
Adoption of Protestant doctrines	Adoption of 41 Articles of Belief Revision of these to 39 Articles Act of Uniformity	Edward VI Elizabeth Cromwell's Protectorate

weakened their monopoly over trade, and during the reign of his son, Edward VI, caused the destruction of the chantries. The **The Chantries** chantries were small churches or shrines founded by wealthy and pious men for the perpetual performance of special masses for the repose of the souls of the dead. Special chantry priests devoted most of their time to these services, but filled in their spare moments with teaching. The abolition of the chantries and the confiscation of their property created a necessity for public schools, which were first established by a far-sighted minister of Edward VI.

Character of Henry VIII and of his Government

Henry VIII was cruel and selfish; he used his ministers to further his selfish aims and kept parliament subservient to him; in his treatment of his family he showed an utter disregard for the rights of others. After the birth of his daughter Elizabeth he tired of her mother, and Anne Boleyn was beheaded upon the same block used a few months before for the execution of Sir Thomas More, the friend of Erasmus and Wolsey, who had refused to recognize the legality of Anne's marriage to the king. Henry then married Jane Seymour, who died shortly after the birth of his only son.[1] The last years of Henry's reign were marked by the increasing tyranny of the king. He persecuted extreme Protestants and Catholics alike. In the Act of Six Articles parliament stated Henry's belief, accepting in each of these articles the doctrine of the orthodox Catholic Church.[2] At the close of his reign the English church was Roman Catholic in doctrine, but it no longer recognized the authority of the pope and it permitted the use of the Bible in English. One of the

[1] Cromwell arranged a marriage between Anne of Cleves, a German princess of a Protestant family, and his king, but Henry was so displeased at the plainness of this bride that he permitted the English church to annul the marriage and had Cromwell beheaded. Henry later married Catherine Howard, a relative of Anne Boleyn, and soon tiring of her, caused her execution. His last wife, Catharine Parr, outlived him.

[2] These articles required all Englishmen to believe in the doctrines of transubstantiation, communion in one kind, celibacy of the clergy, sanctity of vows taken by churchmen, private masses, and secret confession to the priests.

great achievements of the closing period of his reign was the translation of the Bible into English.

Edward VI was only ten when his father died, and accordingly a protectorate was established with his uncle the Duke of Somerset, as protector. During his administration the chantries were closed, Protestant doctrines were adopted, and a prayer-book in English was prepared. After six years of reigning without ruling, Edward died, whereupon the Duke of Northumberland, who had displaced Somerset as the king's principal adviser, endeavored to put his daughter-in-law, the Lady Jane Grey, a great-granddaughter of Henry VII (see p. 302), upon the throne, in order to retain his prominent position. But the people were not wholly in sympathy with the extreme Protestantism of Edward's reign; accordingly they rallied around Edward's sister, the Princess Mary, and after a brief struggle and short imprisonment Lady Jane followed her husband and his ambitious father to the scaffold.

Progress of the Reformation during the Reign of Edward VI

The eldest child of Henry VIII knew that the reformed church in England had annulled her mother's marriage to the king, so it was only natural that the fragile girl, and later the sickly woman, should have clung to the faith of her mother. Mary was devoted to the Catholic religion and to the English people, and she could not feel easy of conscience until she had restored them to the fold of the church. She received a papal legate, and her parliament confessed its belief in the Roman faith by kneeling in his presence. For the few years of her reign England was again Roman Catholic. The old statute against heretics, which had been used both by Catholic and Protestant in attempts to root out religious beliefs varying from those established by law, was again enforced against the followers of the reform movement. For this persecution the queen has come down in history as " Bloody Mary," but there was little of vindictiveness or cruelty in her character. Her whole life was tragic; her childhood shadowed, her health poor, even her happiness in marriage thwarted. She alienated her subjects by

Character of Queen Mary

The Catholic Reaction

marrying Philip II, who hoped to secure the support of England in his wars against the rebellious Dutch.   It was chiefly through his influence that she persecuted the Protestants, nearly three

QUEEN MARY TUDOR

hundred of whom were burned at the stake during the closing years of her unhappy reign.   Disappointed in marriage, for Philip cared only for English gold and soldiers, feeling the loss of her people's affection, suffering from a complication of serious

diseases, Mary made a last effort to hold her husband's grati-
tude; Philip being at war with France, Mary found a pretext
for declaring war against France in 1558. Totally unprepared
for war, the English helplessly allowed the French to seize
Calais, the last of England's splendid empire in France.

Within a few months Mary
died of a broken heart, and
her sister quietly assumed the
crown. As was natural for a
daughter of Anne Boleyn, Eliz-
abeth restored the Protestant
religion, which has ever since
been the established church of
England.

**109. The Thirty Years'
War.** — The religious Peace of
Augsburg (see page 314), which
was made in Germany while
Mary was queen in England,
was a compromise between the

GUSTAVUS II ADOLPHUS

Catholics and the Lutheran Protestants, which failed to take
into consideration other Protestant sects. Early in the seven- Causes of the
teenth century a league of Protestant rulers was formed, under Thirty Years'
War
the leadership of Frederick, the Elector of the Rhenish Palatinate
and a Calvinist; and in opposition to this league, a much stronger
combination of Catholic rulers was formed. When Frederick
was chosen king of Bohemia by the Protestants of the country,
the Catholic League asserted the right of the Hapsburg family
to rule over that country. Both leagues were already under
arms and the Thirty Years' War began. After a short cam-
paign Frederick was driven from the throne of Bohemia. Just
as James I, Elizabeth's successor, was attempting to use what he
considered his great diplomatic skill to aid his son-in-law,
Frederick, the war became broader. Other Protestant rulers,
fearing the growth of the power of the Catholic League, took a

hand in the war. The first two periods of the war are termed respectively the Bohemian and Danish periods, because the fighting in each period was conducted, on the Protestant side, chiefly by the rulers of those countries. The third period is, for a similar reason, known as the Swedish period. The ruler of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus, invaded Germany with two motives. He desired to defend Protestantism against the successful armies of the league and also to enlarge his kingdom at the expense of the northern German states.

Gustavus Adolphus: Character and Policy

Gustavus is the most imposing figure in Swedish history, not merely for his great generalship, but because of his far-sighted . statesmanship. He planned the establishment of a Swedish colony in the new world on the shore of Delaware Bay, and favored commerce by enlarging the navy. His immediate predecessors had conquered the eastern shores of the Baltic, and had Gustavus been successful in his policy of empire building, the Baltic Sea would have truly become a " Swedish Lake." For nearly two years Gustavus was victorious in the field, but finally, at the battle of Lützen, although his army defeated that of the league, Gustavus was killed.

The French Period of the War

The final phase of war began when France entered the contest against the House of Hapsburg. Cardinal Richelieu, the great French statesman, who was the real ruler of France during the greater part of the reign of Louis XIII, Henry IV's incompetent son, aimed to make France great at the expense of the Hapsburg family in Austria and Spain. (See p. 314) He desired to add the German states west of the Rhine to France. After ten years more of fighting, just at the close of which the great cardinal died, the Hapsburgs were forced to ask for peace.

Peace of Westphalia: Terms

Accordingly, in 1648, a general treaty was made, which is known as the Peace of Westphalia. Its provisions were as follows: Spain acknowledged the independence of the Dutch republic; the terms of the Peace of Augsburg were extended to include the Calvinists; France gained three bishoprics, Metz, Verdun, and Toul, and the province of Alsace, west of the Rhine; the

WESTERN EUROPE IN 1660

SCALE OF MILES

0   100   200   300

Gains of France at the Peace of Westphalia (1648), including Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and at the Peace of the Pyrenees (page 383) shown in solid purple. Spanish territory orange: Austrian green: Brandenburg (including Prussia 1618), red; boundaries of the Empire yellow; Swedish Pomerania, brown. Note Franche Comté, which twenty years later was to be conquered by Louis XIV. (page 385).

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power of the emperor was permanently weakened by the clause
which allowed the several states of the empire to negotiate
treaties without his consent; and Sweden was given Pomerania
and other regions along the Baltic.

The international importance of this treaty will be seen to
be very great.   The power of Spain was humbled by the recogni-
tion of the independence of her revolted provinces in the Neth-
erlands; France became the leader in European politics; while
the central government of the empire was rendered a mere
shadow.   The social and economic effects of the war were no
less far-reaching.   From the Rhine to Poland, and from the
Baltic to the Danube, Germany was a land of blackened fields
and ruined towns.   Half the population had been carried off
by the great plagues that accompanied the war, or as a result
of the desolation wrought by the warring armies.   Manufactur-
ing was at a standstill; agriculture was insufficient to meet the
needs of the starving people.   It took Germany over one hun-
dred and fifty years to recover from the awful losses caused by
the Thirty Years' War.

110. Summary of the Era of the Protestant Reformation. —
The Protestant Reformation took place during the sixteenth
century.   After years of dispute the religious Peace of Augs-
burg divided Germany into two hostile camps, the Lutherans
and the Catholics.   Philip II had stifled the movement in Spain,
but was unable to do so in his Dutch possessions.   The Nether-
lands revolted from his rule and were recognized as independent
in 1648.   France was Catholic, but the Edict of Nantes gave a
certain amount of religious freedom.   England withdrew from
the Roman Catholic Church organization during the reign of
Henry VIII and from the forms and creed of that church during
the reigns of Edward VI and Elizabeth.   Italy was untouched
by the Reformation.   In Switzerland Calvin developed his doc-
trines which were to influence profoundly later political history.
The struggle between Catholics and Protestants in Germany,
the last great religious war of history, was ended by the Peace
of Westphalia.

*[margin note: and Impor-
tance]*

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Write in your note-books a report from some of the larger works on one or more of the following topics:

Services of Jesuit missionaries in America; Dutch life at the opening of the seventeenth century; The life of William the Silent; The career of Wolsey; A comparison of the careers of Wolsey and Becket; The personal appearance and traits of Henry VIII; A comparison of the character and work of Savonarola and Calvin; The influence of the Guise family in France; Events leading to the battle of Ivry, its results; The Schmalkald League and its work; The example furnished by Cranmer. On a map of the world show the possessions of Charles V. On a map of Europe show the countries of Europe about 1550. On a map of central Europe show the electorates of Germany.

(The following topics are to be found in Johnson, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century:* Rivington.) Europe at the opening of the Protestant Reformation, 4–89; Germany on the eve of the reform, 90–128; Life and work of Martin Luther, 153–160; France in the sixteenth century, 451–58; The Jesuits and the Catholic reform, 262–69; Revolt of the Netherlands, 316–86.

(The following topics are to be found in Beard's *English Historians.*) The origin of the Protestant revolt in England, 274–80; The last days of Archbishop Cranmer, 281–94.

(The following topics are to be found in Cheyney's *Readings.*) Character of Henry VIII, 330–32; Character of Wolsey, 333–36; Early stages of the reform in England, 336–51; Reign of Edward VI, 351–54; Character of Mary; Career of Jane Grey, 356–59; The extreme Protestant view of Mary's policy, 358–60.

(The following topics are to be found in Robinson's *Readings.*) The expedition of Charles VIII into Italy, 233–38; Spain at the opening of the sixteenth century, 242–45; Germany at the same time, 247–52; Erasmus's views concerning the evils in the church, 253–57; Luther's theses against indulgences, 258–61; Luther's Address to the German nobility, 269–74; The Edict of Worms, 274–79; The peasants' revolt in Germany, 281–293; Calvin and his work, 194–301; The destruction of English monasteries, 309–10; Philip II, 319–23; Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 329–332.

FURTHER READINGS

Cheyney, *Short History,* pp. 289–328.
Cheyney, *European Background,* pp. 168–91.
Cambridge Modern History: Macmillan. Vol. II, pp. 142–73, 232–79, 342–76, 639–89. Vol. III, pp. 182–259, 1–52.
Smith, *Martin Luther:* Houghton Mifflin Co.

MAPS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas,* Central Europe 1477, pp. 86–87; Imperial Circles 1512, p. 131; Central Europe 1547, pp. 114–15; Religious Situation in Europe 1560, p. 116; Netherlands 1559, p. 117; Europe 1560, pp. 118–19.

CHAPTER XIV

THE RISE OF MODERN ENGLAND

111. The Tudor Monarchy. — The Tudor rulers were able Reasons for to reign almost absolutely for several reasons: First, the major- the Absolu- tion of the ity of the land-owning class, both noble and middle, received Tudor their holdings directly from these rulers and therefore were Monarchy in gratitude bound to support them. The Wars of the Roses had created a new nobility, while the abolition of the monas- teries had more than doubled the country gentry's holdings. The majority of the members of both houses of parliament were therefore the friends or favorites of the monarchs and had no thought of opposing them. Second, the progress of events in the Protestant Reformation forced the people of England to rally unquestioningly around the policy of their sovereigns. The religious changes were approved by the majority of English- men, while the ever present fear of an attempt upon the part of the Catholic powers to thwart these changes in England as they had done in their own countries, made Englishmen hesitate to curb the increasing power of the crown lest, in so doing, they weaken the whole nation in a like degree. Third, the growth of commerce and industry as a result of the royal policy made the traders and manufacturers of the towns content to let well enough alone. Fourth, the expansion of England's influence as a great European power made a strong royal government necessary just then for her safety and protection. Never before had the majority of all classes from the nobles to the industrial commoners in the towns been so contented and prosperous under their rulers, and they preferred to let well enough alone, lest, by asserting their right to curb the monarch, they should fall

apart into factions each seeking its own advantage at the expense of the others and of the nation at large.

112. Extension of National Power Abroad. — Before the reign of Henry VII, England had little part in the diplomatic affairs of Europe. The peace policy adopted by Henry VII; the balance-of-power policy inaugurated by Wolsey and strengthened by Cecil, Elizabeth's great minister of state; the defeat of the Spanish Armada; the colonial enterprises of the reign of Elizabeth; and the remarkable intellectual awakening during the Tudor period — all contributed to make England one of the great powers of Europe. Henry VII restored order and strengthened the monarchy by his reforms. He concluded a series of foreign marriages for his children (see p. 302), and thus rendered the danger of war with Spain, France, and Scotland less threatening.
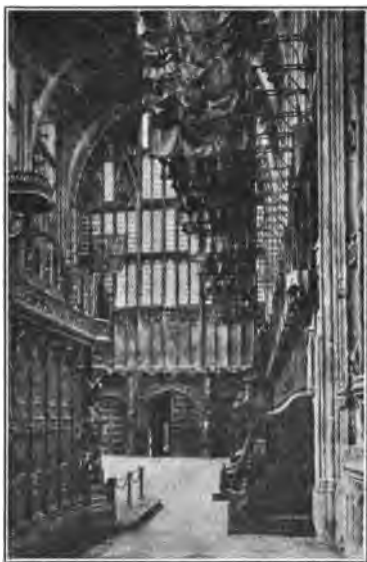
HENRY VII'S CHAPEL, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

He was grasping by nature, but recognized the importance of commerce and industry. He aided commerce by granting monopolies over trade to certain companies like the Merchants Adventurers, and by concluding commercial treaties with the kings of Denmark and Spain, and with Duke Philip of Burgundy. The latter is known as the Intercursus Magnus. It granted to English merchants freedom of trade in the Netherlands, a right which had not been enjoyed since the outbreak of the Hundred Years' War. By a navigation law requiring that certain
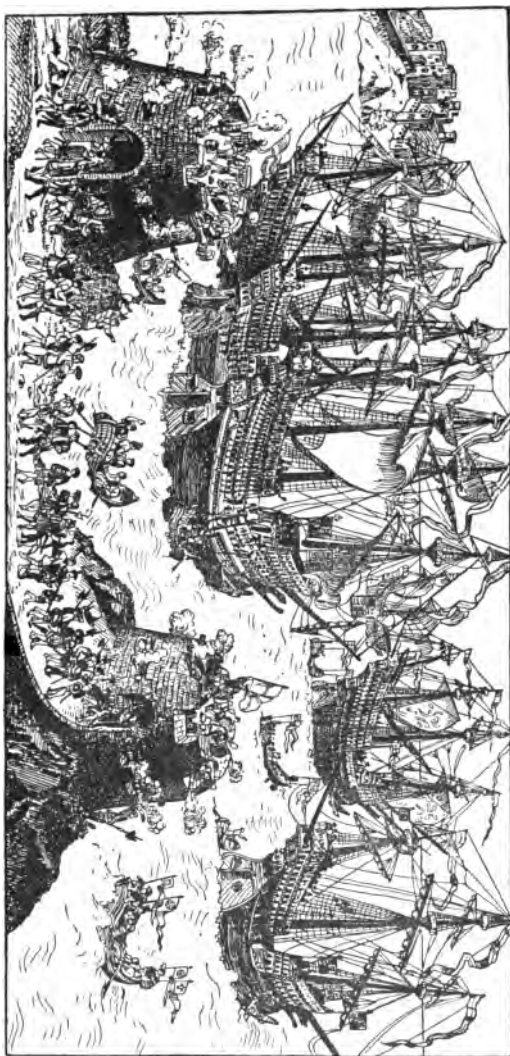
HENRY VIII EMBARKING FOR THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD

The meeting of Henry VIII and Francis I to arrange an alliance between the two countries was held in a spot so richly decorated that it is known as The Field of the Cloth of Gold. (Note that the ships, while somewhat larger, are of the same general appearance as the Santa Maria, the vessel of Columbus.)

French products be carried to England only in English-built ships manned by English sailors, he strengthened English shipping. This was the first step in English naval supremacy. Thus it will be seen that during his reign there was established a friendly relation between the government and industry.

Mercantile Policy

When a government seeks to develop commerce and industry it is said to have adopted a mercantile policy.

Law against Livery and Maintenance

By a law forbidding livery and maintenance he put an end to the power of the feudal lords and, at the same time, strength-ened the monarchy. By col-lecting forced loans, called

Benevolences

benevolences, from the more wealthy of his subjects, he was able to secure sufficient funds so that he need not ask parliament to raise taxes. Thus in a roundabout man-ner he gained control over taxation. The ordinary courts were bound by a certain rou-tine arising from the cases of common law, and therefore not adapted to a monarchy in which the will of the monarch should be supreme. Henry VII therefore estab-lished a secret tribunal, the

QUEEN ELIZABETH

Star Chamber

Court of Star Chamber, to try those suspected of plotting against him. To his son Henry VIII he left a large treasury, a strongly centralized governmental machine, and a truly national English commerce; and by his aid to the Cabots, meager as it was, he gave England the first claim to huge colonial possessions in America.

Wolsey and the " Balance of Power" Policy

Thomas Wolsey, a churchman of humble origin, who had risen by hard work through various public offices until he had

become Henry VIII's chancellor, made France and Spain sue
for England's aid in settling their quarrels.   He is said to have
preserved the " balance of power " by promising to aid the
country most needing help.   This policy was also adopted by
William. Cecil, Lord Burleigh, upon whom Elizabeth relied for
the conduct of her foreign affairs.   In the struggle between the
Huguenots and Catholics in France, Elizabeth made the power
of England felt by both parties; in Netherlands the fear of **Elizabeth's Foreign Policy**
English intervention vexed Philip II; while in the wars between
France and Spain each side tried to conciliate England so that
she would not take the field in support of the other nation.
The caution of Elizabeth served her well, for the fear of inter-
vention was even more powerful in gaining respect than such
intervention would have been, and during the greater part of her
reign England was at peace.   For thirty years Elizabeth was
enabled to extend the commercial policy of her grandfather, to
encourage colonizing efforts, and to complete the work of the
Protestant Reformation in England without the hindrance of
foreign war.

A contemporary writer tells us that the persecution of the
Protestants in the Netherlands and France drove many to seek
refuge in England during her reign.   These developed " every
sort of workmanship in wool and flax," so that the output of
fabrics of all kinds was tremendously increased.   " It is mar-
velous," writes the Venetian ambassador during the reign of
Elizabeth, " to think of the vast quantity of drapery sent by
the English into the Netherlands, . . . which may make the
annual amount to 12,000,000 crowns," a sum equal to more
than the same number of dollars.   Lace manufacture was in-
troduced from France, and velvets, baize, and other fabrics
formerly scarce in England were extensively manufactured. **Growth of Industry and Commerce**
Trading companies, on the plan of the Merchants Adventur-
ers, received government protection and opened up extensive
trade relations with Turkey, the Baltic countries, Africa, and
the East Indies.   The influence of Elizabeth in favoring colo-

nization is commemorated in the name Virginia, given to his American colonial venture by Sir Walter Raleigh in honor of the virgin queen.

War with Spain

English ships trading with Africa and the West Indies had frequent conflicts with the Spanish, who, by reason of being first in the field, attempted to exclude English commerce. Bold English captains made piratical seizures of Spanish galleons loaded with treasure taken from the plundered Indian cities, and their actions were condoned by the English government, which carried on wily negotiations with Spain in pretended sorrow at such conduct against the law of nations. Eventually Spain allowed herself to be tricked no longer and declared war on England. The other causes of this war were the irritation felt by Philip II because of English interference in the Netherlands, his espousal of the Catholic cause against England's Protestant and excommunicated queen, and finally his claim that Mary Stuart had bequeathed the English crown to himself.

Story of Mary Stuart

The story of Mary Stuart is of pathetic interest. She was the daughter of James V of Scotland, and first married Francis II, the elder brother of Charles IX of France. As a youthful widow she had returned to Scotland to become the queen of the Scots. Here she was bitterly attacked by John Knox, Calvin's pupil, because of her rigorous measures against the Protestants of Scotland. Accused of complicity in the murder of her second husband, Lord Darnley, she fled to England to seek the protection of her distant cousin, Elizabeth. Her great personal charm and the enthusiasm of English Catholics for Mary, made Elizabeth jealous of her. Under a pretence of securing her safety, Elizabeth imprisoned her for many years. Mary was finally suspected of complicity in a plot to displace Elizabeth on the throne of England, and by the queen's order she was beheaded.

The Armada

Philip II resolved to avenge her death and to square his account with England by a great invasion. Gathering a large flotilla of ships, or armada, his admirals set sail for England in

1588.   When his fleet reached the English channel, the seaman-
ship of Drake and other great English captains baffled the
attack, and the rout of the gigantic fleet was finished by a storm
which drove the surviving ships into the North Sea.   Thus
England wrested naval supremacy from Spain.

During the remaining years of Elizabeth's reign the intellectual   Elizabethan
renaissance, which had begun with the work of Erasmus and   Age of English
More during the reign of Henry VII, came to its climax.   This   Literature

HOLYROOD PALACE — EDINBURGH
Mary resided in this palace during her tragic stay in Scotland.

was the age of Shakespeare, when English drama reached its
highest point of development.   Besides the wonderful plays of
this great dramatist, Edmund Spenser added to the literary
triumphs of the period by writing " The Faerie Queene," a
poetical allegory of rare beauty of rime and rhythm, and Sir
Francis Bacon published a series of essays on philosophical and
literary subjects.

113.   The Rise of Puritanism. — Elizabeth was well educated   Character of
and mentally alert, patriotic to the highest degree, although   Elizabeth
insincere and excessively vain and selfish; yet the strength of
her character outweighed the weak points, and her influence on

English. history is of the utmost importance for good. At the close of her reign England was prosperous commercially, prominent intellectually, politically a great European power, and religiously Protestant. Although she was fond of the beautiful ritual of the Catholic Church, the daughter could not accept the teachings of that church without casting shame on her own mother, for the Catholic Church had never recognized the legality of Henry VIII's divorce from Katharine; yet her naturally tolerant and broad-minded disposition made her favor the repeal

The Church of England of the strict laws against heretics. The doctrines of the reformed English church were embodied in Thirty-nine Articles which gave the English or Anglican Church a position midway between the Catholics and the extreme Protestants. The church organization remained practically the same as that of the church before the Reformation, but many of the forms of of the church service were simpler, while the doctrines also differed from those of Rome. This compromise between the two churches was unsatisfactory to many of the extreme Pro-

The Puritans testants, who were called Puritans because they wished to see the English church purified of everything that might suggest the Catholic form of worship, such as the surplice of the priest and the altar decorations. During the first part of her reign Puritanism was confined chiefly to the manufacturing middle class, which was largely recruited by the Calvinistic Netherlanders fleeing from Spanish persecution during the Dutch wars for independence; but during the second part of her reign the movement gained ground among all classes as a result of the nationalist and Protestant feeling aroused by fear of a Catholic invasion and strengthened by the war with Spain.

Debasement of the Currency **114. Social and Economic Conditions under the Tudors. —** In addition to the effects of the Tudor reigns upon trade and industry (see p. 337), there were other economic changes of great importance. The great gains from the new manufactures and from the extension of commerce were offset by changes in the currency and in the methods of farming. During the reign of

Henry VIII the pound and the shilling, the standard coins, were made smaller, while at the same time more base metal or alloy was mixed with the gold and silver. The king received the old coins in payment of taxes and paid out the new coins to his creditors, thus netting about fifty per cent profit. Merchants detected the fraud and charged double prices for their wares, so that the burden fell ultimately upon the poor, who had only their services to sell and had to take whatever was offered.

It has already been seen that the coming of Flemish refugees from the tyranny of the Spaniards influenced manufacturing. They also influenced agriculture. Carrots, celery, and cabbages were introduced by them, and also hops, which are used for brewing beer.

The increase in domestic manufacturing caused a greater demand for wool. To satisfy this demand farmers fenced in their fields and began to raise more sheep. The more powerful landowners unjustly took possession of their weaker neighbors' lands and joined them to their own enclosures. Many people were thus deprived of their means of livelihood. Others who had formerly worked farms were thrown out of employment because fewer laborers are needed for sheep-pasturing than for agriculture. Thus it will be seen that depreciation of the coinage and the growth of enclosures caused the increase of a pauper class. Had the monastic orders not been abolished they would have relieved some of this distress, as charity had been one of their chief functions. *Enclosures* *Increase in the Pauper Class*

The growth of pauperism became so alarming that the government took steps to remove the causes. Laws were passed against enclosures, but they could not be enforced. Like the modern trust problem, the growth of enclosures seems to have been a natural product of the industrial conditions of the age. Governmental regulation was powerless to check their increase, and society had to adjust iself to the new conditions which they produced. In the matter of coinage, relief was possible at some sacrifice upon the part of the government. Soon after Eliza- *Governmental Action to relieve the Economic Distress* *Reform of the Coinage*

beth's accession she issued a proclamation ordering the restoration of the former size and purity of the coins. Within a year the base coins were collected, purified, and recoined. This cost the government a considerable sum, but the people gained greatly by it in the end. During Elizabeth's reign a number of laws were passed to regulate and give systematic aid to the

The Elizabethan Poor Laws

COACHES IN THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH

poor. These provided for overseers of the poor who should collect and expend the taxes raised for the support of the poor; those unwilling to work were sentenced to labor in houses of correction; while strict penalties were enacted against vagrants and beggars.

Description of the Houses of the Elizabethan Period

Certain classes showed higher standards of living, especially in the matter of building. Instead of long, low buildings

whose walls of wooden beams filled in with clay enclosed both living rooms, servants' quarters, and, at times, even the stable, houses were now constructed of timber and stone, their walls tapestry-lined or sealed with handsome wainscoating. The dwellings of the moderately well-to-do contained stoves, glass windows, costly cupboards filled with pewter and silver plate, wall paintings, feather beds instead of the older piles of straw, and other evidences of prosperity.

The Tudors came to the throne when the government was badly disorganized by civil war and without standing among Summary of the Tudor Period

GREAT HALL IN AN ELIZABETHAN MANOR

foreign governments; when commerce had not yet recovered from the disastrous effects of the Hundred Years' War; when the social condition of the people was low, owing to the confusion caused by the break-up of the medieval system of landholding and its attendant customs; when the church had forgotten the warnings of Wyclif; when learning had declined and literature was crude and unformed. Elizabeth handed over to her successor a strongly centralized monarchy, which occupied a proud position in European councils; a foreign trade and domestic manufactures second to none of that time; an advanced state of living

in which luxury and comfort walked hand in hand; a well-organized church, purified of the charges of corruption; a revived interest in learning, and the culmination of English dramatic literature.

Reasons for Opposition to the Stuarts

115. Division between King and Parliament. — The causes that enabled the Tudors to rule without taking parliament into consideration were less important since the defeat of the Armada. England was now securely Protestant and safe from foreign invasion. Parliament was therefore not so willing to surrender its opinion to satisfy the Stuart kings. This new-born spirit of independence owed its origin partly to the two reasons given above and partly to the character of the first Stuart.

James I

James VI of Scotland, who, under the title of James I, had quietly succeeded Elizabeth on the English throne, lacked the physical and mental powers which had won the admiration and affection of the English for his predecessor. His ungainly figure, stumbling gait, and stammering speech became a king as badly as did his narrow-mindedness, egotism, and lack of tact. Many of his subjects disagreed with him in his conception of the royal power. He believed and acted upon the principle of the divine right of kings to rule, frequently expressing the idea that a king owes his throne not to the people under him, but to God, and that it is, therefore, not only treason, but even impiety for a subject to question the acts of his ruler. Another reason for his unpopularity was his unwise choice of ministers. Unable to recognize, or else jealous of, true greatness of mind, he filled the important state offices with worthless favorites whose only qualifications were their ability to flatter and please him. Had he been a stronger man his subjects might have rebelled, but they bided their time, hoping that his successor would be better.

Policy of Charles I

Charles I was a more manly ruler than his father and possessed more statesmanship, but he held the same distorted idea of divine right. This led him to attempt to collect forced loans from his subjects, to subject them to arbitrary trial by court martial for not paying these loans, or else to throw them into

prison without trial and to quarter his soldiers in their houses
without the owner's consent. All of these acts were contrary
to the spirit of English freedom as expressed in royal charters or
by decisions of the courts of England; therefore the House of
Commons in 1628 drew up the
Petition of Right requesting the
king to refrain from committing
these illegal acts, and Charles
thought it wise to approve the
petition.

The king had apparently
given way, but his people soon
found that he had no intention
of carrying out the law. He
claimed the right of collecting
tonnage and poundage, which
were import and export taxes,
without consulting parliament,
an act forbidden to the king
by Magna Carta. The obliging
parliaments of former rulers
had made it customary to grant
this source of revenue for life
to a ruler at his accession, but
Charles's first parliament had
specified that it made the grant
for one year only. It thus gave
notice of its intention to keep
the matter of taxation in its own

CHARLES I

hands. Angered at the dispute that arose in parliament over
his royal prerogative, Charles dissolved parliament in 1629 and
ruled for eleven years without ordering a new election or ses-
sion of parliament.

During this period he relied greatly upon two ministers:
Thomas Wentworth, the Earl of Strafford, and William Laud,

Archbishop of Canterbury. Wentworth's watchword was "Thorough"; no halfway measures suited him, and at his direction extremely rigorous decisions were given by the courts against any who differed from the king or his ministers in matters of religion or government. Charles collected tonnage and poundage, sold monopolies for large amounts, and collected a special tax, known as ship money. This tax had been collected by former rulers from the seaport towns in order that a navy might be built for coast defence, and was usually willingly contributed as a matter of insurance against ravages by French or other freebooters. Charles, however, levied it upon all the counties in England, and as this seemed no different from regular taxation,

The Ship-money Case

WILLIAM LAUD

it caused great dissatisfaction. John Hampden, a country member of parliament, refused to pay his tax. In the resulting trial brought against him by the king's officers, five of the twelve justices decided that the king had no right to collect this tax. Although the verdict was against Hampden, he had won a moral victory by arousing the people of England to action.

Laud was a believer in form and ceremony in the church. His attempt to force his ideas upon the English church led to the migration of many Puritans to Massachusetts Bay Colony. His efforts to make the Scotch subjects of Charles adopt the English prayer-book and form of worship caused them to swear to a National Covenant, or pledge to restore the Scottish church to the form approved by John Knox. In order to subdue his rebellious subjects in Scotland, Charles was forced to assemble a parliament in 1640 after eleven years of absolute rule, hoping

Laud's Policy brings on War with Scotland

The Short Parliament

that the danger of foreign war would induce it to rally around the crown, cease what he considered its treasonous discussion of his prerogatives, and vote money for his use.   Instead of voting money, however, this parliament began to question the acts of the king.   Within three weeks Charles dissolved this parliament, which is on that account called the Short Parliament.

The approach of a Scotch army and the desperate condition of his treasury forced Charles to summon another parliament, which sat for so many years that it is called the Long Parliament.   The majority of members in the House of Commons of the Long Parliament were opposed to the king's policy as carried out by his ministers.   Strafford was impeached of treason, and although no definite proof could be brought that he was conspiring against the government, he was known to be the king's most efficient agent in promoting absolutism, and was therefore executed.   It was enacted that parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent; that it must meet at least once in three years; that ship money, tonnage and poundage, and other forms of raising revenue could not be employed by the king except by express grant of parliament.   Having thus settled the political question, parliament attacked the church problem, but soon found itself unable to agree.   There were four principal groups of Protestants in England at this time.   Their views can be best understood from the table on the following page. *Beginning of Long Parliament* *Constitutional Reforms of Long Parliament*

While parliament was busy debating what changes in the religious system were desirable, a rebellion broke out in Ireland which brought another question more acutely to the front — whether it was safe to allow the king to exercise his constitutional right to be commander-in-chief of the army which must be raised to put down the rebellion.   To justify itself parliament drew up a statement of its case against the king, which is known as the Grand Remonstrance.   Believing that the leaders of the House of Commons were in communication with the Scots, Charles went in person to the meeting of the commons and *Irish Rebellion*

attempted to arrest the five men most prominent in opposing him.   He not only failed to find the men but outraged the feelings of the House, one of whose most prized privileges had been supposed to be freedom from such acts upon the part of an arbitrary ruler.   A law was at once passed by both houses, taking the command of the militia away from the king and giving it to a general to be chosen by and responsible to parliament.   Charles **Opening of the War** made a vain attempt to seize the military stores gathered at Hull, but thwarted by the vigilance of parliament, he declared the country in a state of civil war between its lawful sovereign and a parliament of rebels and traitors.   The puritan revolution had begun.

TABLE OF PROTESTANT GROUPS

NAME	CHURCH GOVERNMENT DESIRED BY EACH	STATE GOVERNMENT DESIRED BY EACH	CHURCH SERVICE DESIRED BY EACH	DOCTRINE OR BELIEF — AS STATED BY
Anglican	Episcopal (by bishops)	Strong monarchy	Ritualistic — formal — High Church	" Thirty-Nine Articles "
Puritan	Episcopal (modified)	Limited monarchy	Simple — Low Church	Calvin
Presbyterian	Presbyterial (by a presbytery)	Limited monarchy	Simple	Calvin
Separatist	Independent (each) church by itself)	Commonwealth or republic	Simple	Various Protestant reformers

Division of the Country   **116. Civil War and the Commonwealth.** — The contest between king and parliament had two phases — the first, civil war, in which a united parliament opposed the royal army; the second, two factions in parliament fighting for the mastery.   At the opening of the war the southeastern half of England, in which were the principal towns and most of the enlightenment of England, was on the side of parliament; the northwestern **League with Scotland** half, in which lay the great landed estates of the nobility, favored the king.   Parliament entered into a solemn league and cove-

THE DIVISION
OF
ENGLAND
JANUARY, 1643
(After Gardiner)

Supporters of King Charles
Supporters of Parliament

SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100

SCOTLAND

Glasgow
Edinburgh
Dunbar (X 1650)
R. Tweed

NORTHUMBERLAND
1646
Newburn
Newcastle
Berwick
Durham
CUMBERLAND
DURHAM
WESTMORLAND

NORTH SEA

Scarborough

YORK
Marston Moor
(1644)
York
Hull
Preston

IRISH SEA
R. Ribble
R. Mersey
Liverpool
Gainsborough
(1643)
LINCOLN
(X 1643)
Winceby
ANGLESEY
Winnington Br.
(1660)
CHESHIRE
DERBY
Chester
Newark
Grantham

LEICESTER
(1645)
Naseby
WARWICK
Holmby Ho.
NORFOLK

St. George's Channel
Worcester
(1651)
Edge Hill
(1642)
HUNTINGDON
SUFFOLK

Pembroke
MONMOUTH
Raglan
GLOUCESTER
Gloucester
Colchester
(1648)
ESSEX
London
Mouth
of the Thames

Bristol Channel
Bristol
Bath
Roundway Down
(1643 X)
WILTSHIRE
SURREY
KENT
Canterbury

SOMERSET
Langport
Alresford
Winchester
HAMPSHIRE
SUSSEX

DEVON
DORSET
Southampton
Exeter
Weymouth
Portsmouth
Carisbrook Cas.
ISLE OF WIGHT

CORNWALL
Plymouth
Falmouth

ENGLISH CHANNEL

FRANCE

SORMAY & CO., N.Y.

Longitude West from Greenwich

nant with the Scots to " bring the churches in the three kingdoms," (England, Scotland, and Ireland), " to . . . uniformity in religion, confession of faith, (and) form of church government."

End of First War

In return parliament was to receive the support of the Scotch armies. After four years of fighting, in which parliament won the decisive battles, the king surrendered. Negotiations were opened between king and parliament to determine the conditions of peace. On this question the two factions in parliament differed widely in opinion. The Presbyterians had now attained the reforms for which they had entered the war, namely the recognition of their religion, and were willing to accept the king's terms, which included the acceptance of their religion and the relinquishment of many of his pretended rights. The Separatists rightly gauged the character of the king, and knew that his promises were worthless. They wished for complete separation of church and state, and were hostile to the monarchy. Moreover, they had as leader one of the most remarkable men England had ever produced.

Political Views of the Parties in Parliament

OLIVER CROMWELL

Character and Influence of Oliver Cromwell

Oliver Cromwell, the victorious general of the parliamentary army, represented Cambridge in the House of Commons. He was at this time a man of middle age, of deep religious conviction, and desirous of extending the freedom of Englishmen. He believed that each church should decide for itself in religious matters, and had no confidence in the promises of the king. Inspired by his attitude, the army refused to be disbanded by parliament, which now realized that it had created a power that threatened the monarchy. The Scots again began the struggle,

this time to rescue the king from the hands of his enemies, but they were routed by Cromwell's reconstructed army. This army, called the New Model, deserves a word. Composed of seasoned veterans, hard fighters, who opened a battle with a prayer and a hymn and then fought like demons, Cromwell's army of " Ironsides " had an effectiveness in war like that of no other army of history.

Cromwell's Army

After he had spent two more years suppressing royalist revolts in various parts of the British Isles, Cromwell was in a position to compel parliament to abolish the monarchy. He sent an aide, Colonel Pride, with a body of soldiers to allow none but Separatist members of the House of Commons to assemble. This arbitrary act is called "Pride's Purge." Now in complete power, the Separatist parliament, known as the " Rump Parliament," because it was the part left sitting, appointed a high court of justice to try the king on the charge of treason to the English people. After a short trial, in which he refused to recognize the right of the court to try him, Charles was condemned to death. Early in 1649 he was beheaded in front of Whitehall palace, and England was declared a republic under the title of the Commonwealth of Great Britain. The government consisted of the House of Commons and a group of influential men called the Council of State. The latter was the executive branch and relied on the army to enforce its will.

Pride's Purge

Trial and Execution of Charles I

The new republic had on its hands formidable rebellions in Scotland and Ireland, which declared for Prince Charles, the eldest son of the executed king, but Cromwell was more than a match for these risings. He led his army first into Ireland, then into Scotland, defeating the rebels and taking such a grim vengeance on his opponents that his name became dreaded. On his return to England he established as great a reputation for statesmanship as he had won as general. As president of the council of state he guided the Rump Parliament in its policy until he became convinced that for the good of the nation a new parliament should be chosen. His action at that time was

The Commonwealth

characteristic of the man, for, entering the House of Commons, he strode up to the Speaker's chair and declared in no gentle manner the shortcomings of that body. After he had dissolved the meeting, his soldiers cleared the hall. Soon after this he assembled a number of influential men, chosen by himself, and this "Nominated Parliament" attempted to act as a law-making body. Failing to agree, this body adjourned, leaving its powers in the hands of Cromwell, whom it recognized as the only man in England wise enough to carry on the government.

The Protectorate

The army leaders now drafted a constitution, called the Instrument of Government, which practically reëstablished the monarchy, with Cromwell as ruler under the title of Lord Protector.

For the next five years Cromwell ruled almost absolutely, and such was his ability that foreign governments were made to recognize the prominence of England. At length, worn out with his long labors devoted to the upbuilding of England, Cromwell died; and when his strong hand was removed, the structure he had reared so faithfully crumbled away. His son Richard succeeded him as protector, but owing to his incompetency a period of military tyranny ensued. At last General Monk made himself master of the government, recalled the Long Parliament, and in 1660 Prince Charles was invited to return from the court of Holland, where he had taken refuge during the prosperity of his enemies. The republic fell without a blow, and all England rejoiced at the accession of Charles II.

Character of Charles II

117. Restoration and Revolution. — Brilliant, witty and handsome, Charles II lacked the almost fanatical devotion to a cause that had been the ruin of his father. Too fond of pleasure to deny himself ease and comfort, he was at the same time more tactful in his methods of government and more prudent in his policies. He had no strong moral principles and the personal life of his court and even his own was scandalous. That the people of England were silent at these evidences of weakness in their king may be attributed to the reaction in popular feeling from the hard, unbending, and puritanical rule of Cromwell.

In order to settle the matter of taxation once for all, parliament declared illegal all forms of taxation except tonnage and poundage and an excise upon liquors. This put an end to the attempts to revive feudal aids under the titles of benevolences or forced loans. Charles would have been better pleased with parliament's settlement of the church question than with its legislation about taxes, for it was more in accordance with his desire for exact conformity. A very severe code of laws, brought forward by Charles II's chief adviser, the Earl of Clarendon, was passed against Dissenters — all those who disagreed with the teachings, ritual, or government of the established Anglican Church. This code not only barred Dissenters from public offices, but even prohibted them from holding service according to their dissenting views, and provided severe penalties for the infraction of any of its terms.

Adjustment of Financial and Religious Matters

The Clarendon Code

Charles II was at heart fond of the elaborate ritual and certain of the doctrines of the Roman Church, although it cannot be said that he was a religious man. Because of his sympathy with Catholics he attempted to win the support of all Dissenters by issuing a Declaration of Indulgence, in which he announced that he would not enforce the Clarendon Code. He defended this declaration on the ground that the king possessed the power of dispensing with the execution of laws when in his judgment it seemed wise to do so. To parliament the declaration seemed to indicate two things: first, that the king favored the Catholics; second, that Charles wished to override the parliamentary declaration that the king, lords, and commons are of equal importance in the government of England, by asserting his superiority to the laws of England. The displeasure of parliament was shown so strongly that Charles withdrew his declaration; he had no desire to resume his travels.

Charles II's Policy of Toleration

This concession on the king's part did not satisfy the more ardent Protestants. His disgraceful betrayal of England to the king of France (see p. 258) was suspected, and parliament began to discuss the question of who should succeed to the throne

The Question of the Succession

after Charles's death.   The heir to the throne was James, Duke of York, the king's brother and a professed Catholic.   A strong party in the House of Commons favored passing a bill to exclude

all Catholics from the right to succeed to the English crown. Fear that parliament might pass this bill caused Charles to dissolve parliament.   Those in favor of exclusion petitioned the king to call a new parliament, in order that a vote on this question might be taken.   These petitioners were opposed by the royalist party, which advised the king not to yield.   Bitter feeling arose and each side began to call names.   The petitioners

were called Whigs, a derisive term formerly applied to the extreme Scotch Protestants; while the Whigs called their opponents Tories, a word used by the Englishmen in Ireland to describe the outlaws of that land.   In this manner originated the names of the two great political parties of English politics. Before the matter could be settled Charles II died and the Duke of York was permitted to take the throne as James II.

At the close of the reign of Charles II, the discovery of a Protestant plot to coerce the king to adopt the exclusion policy caused a reaction in favor of the Tory party, but the actions of James speedily alienated the majority of Englishmen.   Stating that the king is superior to laws concerning religion, he openly adopted the Roman Catholic worship, appointed Catholics to important government offices, permitted Catholic priests to restore Roman forms in the church services, and gave other evidences that he contemplated forcing the English people to change their established church.

When the king began to equip a standing army and quartered it where he could make use of it to suppress rebellion, and furthermore when he attempted to throw into prison seven bishops who had petitioned him not to force them to read his declaration of indulgence in the churches, a wave of indignation spread over England.   The birth of a son to James and his second wife, who was an Italian and Catholic princess, rendered certain the danger of a Catholic line of rulers and a restoration of Catholicism.

An invitation was accordingly sent to William of Orange, a grandson of Charles I and the husband of James II's eldest daughter, to come to the assistance of the Protestant party in England. A descendant of William the Silent, the leader of the Revolution of 1688, William of Orange was also ruler of the Netherlands. He was a man of cold, stern nature, an able general, and a wise administrator. He accepted the invitation,

WILLIAM III

and with a small Dutch army landed on the southern coast of England. His march to London opened the eyes of James II, who found how little loyalty was felt for him even by his army. The successful William wisely permitted James to escape to France, whereupon parliament, declaring that James had vacated the throne, elected William (William III) and Mary as king and queen of England.

The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 was thus accomplished. To make attempts at tyranny impossible in the future, parlia- ment drew up the third of the great constitutional documents of English law. The Bill of Rights stated and forbade the illegal acts committed by James II. Among its more important clauses are those forbidding the king to dispense with laws passed by parliament, stating that the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace without the consent of parliament is illegal, and asserting as rights of Englishmen those of free speech petition, and free elections to parliament. In the Act of Settlement, passed shortly before the accession of Mary's sister Anne, who became queen after the death of William III, parliament provided for a succession of Protestant rulers by a clause excluding James Edward, the pretender to the throne, and his heirs,

and naming as successors to Queen Anne the family of Sophia, a granddaughter of James I who had married the Elector of Hanover.

Foreign Policy of James I

118. England and the Continent. — The timid foreign policy of James I had effectually prevented England from sharing in the Thirty Years' War, although he would have had the enthusiastic support of his people in a war in behalf of Protestantism.   Such a course would have been far wiser than the one he adopted, and might have stayed the conflict over the royal prerogative that swept his son from the throne.   Cromwell's foreign policy was far different.   Perceiving that the newly recognized Dutch republic had far too great a hold upon the carrying trade — that is, upon the business of transporting goods from a country in which they are produced to another country where they may be marketed, — the House of Commons passed a law, known as the Navigation Ordinance,[1] which provided that the ships of other countries could carry to England only those goods produced in their own country, thus effectually blocking any other nation from engaging in the carrying trade to English ports.   Although this policy had been first adopted by Henry VII, or perhaps earlier, this ordinance is of such importance that it is usually referred to as the First Navigation Act.   This and other interference by the English with Dutch commerce led to a brief war between the two countries, in which the English were victorious.   Yet the questions which had caused the war were left unsettled.

Cromwell's Foreign Policy

Relations with Spain and Holland

Commercial reasons prompted Cromwell to go to war with Spain.   In alliance with France, the English navy inflicted severe injuries upon Spanish commerce and won for England the island of Jamaica in the West Indies.   At the height of his career Cromwell was perhaps the greatest figure of his time in Europe.   The French, who had become the leaders of European

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[1] An ordinance in this sense is an enactment of parliament, having the force of law, but lacking the executive signature. As England had no king the Navigation Act of 1651 was called an Ordinance.

VESSELS UNLOADING AT CUSTOM HOUSE (Eighteenth Century)

politics at the Peace of Westphalia, sought his aid and showed him deference.   Spain acknowledged England's superiority, and the Netherlands began to lose their supremacy in the carrying trade.   Soon after the restoration of Charles II, Holland renewed the commercial war with England.   Again the English

Dutch Wars

were successful on the seas, and driving the Dutch government from their colony of the New Netherlands, annexed that province under the name of New York, in honor of the king's brother. After this war the English were willing to make friends with the Dutch, and an alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden which aimed to protect the Protestant countries against the aggressions of France.

Secret Treaty of Dover

To further the policy inaugurated by Richelieu, of extending the territories of France to the Rhine, Louis XIV invaded the Spanish Netherlands, to which he made claim in the name of his wife, a Spanish princess.   Momentarily stopped by a Triple Alliance of England, Sweden, and the United Provinces of the Netherlands, he negotiated secretly with Charles II, and by the Treaty of Dover purchased the honor of that ruler.   This treaty provided that, in return for a large sum of money and for French aid in the restoration of Catholicism in England, Charles was to desert his Dutch allies and join with Louis in an attempt upon

War between Holland and France

the Netherlands.   Louis then planned (1670) to conquer the United Provinces as well as the Spanish Netherlands and to secure his own election as emperor of the German empire. Sweden was induced to give up her alliance with Holland in return for the promise of French aid against her troublesome neighbors, and Louis was thus entirely free to begin his war of conquest.   The French overran a portion of the Netherlands and caused great alarm in that country; but the heroic Dutch opened their dikes and flooded their fields to prevent the French advance, saying that they would defend their homes " to the last ditch," and Admiral de Ruyter defeated a combined English and French fleet off the shores of England.   Louis' great generals, Turenne and Condé, won several important battles along

the Rhine, but by 1678 all parties were ready for peace, which was concluded at Nymwegen. The question of the succession to the throne (see p. 354) thereafter overshadowed all others in England and kept her from taking an interest in continental affairs until the accession of William III, who, because of his Dutch interests, brought England once more into a contest with France. (See p. 355.)

Upon the accession of William of Orange to the English throne in 1689, Louis seized the opportunity to throw his army into the Rhenish Palatinate on an errand of destruction. Heidelberg, Worms, and other German cities were sacked, and a large part of the country was laid waste. The German states were united by these aggressions, and early in 1689 the emperor formed an alliance with Holland and England, called the Grand Alliance, or the League of Augsburg, to oppose France. A poorly organized expedition to restore James II to the English throne was defeated by William III, at the battle of the Boyne in Ireland and a combined Dutch and English fleet inflicted a crushing loss upon the French at La Hogue. In 1697 peace was declared at Ryswick; William was recognized by Louis as king of Great Britain and Ireland, and conquered territories were restored to the nations owning them before the war. *War of the League of Augsburg*

England's final war with Louis XIV is known as the War of the Spanish Succession. The causes were complex, but the circumstances which gave the name were as follows: The decrepit Charles II of Spain willed his crown to the grandson of Louis XIV. In so doing he passed over his Austrian relatives, the Hapsburgs. The exultant exclamation of the French ruler, " The Pyrenees are no more! " — meaning that Spain was to all intents and purposes to be a part of France — found an answering response of dread or jealousy in the hearts of the other European rulers. Furthermore, Louis publicly recognized James Edward Stuart, the son of the deposed James II, as the rightful king in England. It therefore served William's purposes to form the Grand Alliance with Austria and other ag- *War of the Spanish Succession* *Causes*

grieved states to compel Louis to refuse in behalf of his grandson the throne of Spain and to seat the Austrian claimant thereon. Just as the war began, William died and was succeeded by his sister-in-law, Anne. (See p. 355.)

Marlborough, the English general, won decisive victories in the Netherlands and along the Rhine at Blenheim, Malplaquet, Oudenarde, and Ramillies, in coöperation with Prince Eugene of the imperial forces, in spite of the heroic endeavors of the French commanders. Finally, the Austrian claimant to the throne of Spain died and his claim was inherited by the emperor. To put him on the Spanish throne would be as threatening to the balance of power in Europe as to allow Louis' grandson to sit thereon. Moreover, the English were dissatisfied with war and longed for a period of peace in which to build up their shattered commerce. Accordingly the English withdrew from the alliance against France and the war quickly came to an end. Peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713. Anne was recognized as the ruler of England and Scotland, which had recently formed a closer union.[1] England received Gibraltar and other fortresses in Europe, and the Hudson Bay territory, Acadia, and Newfoundland in America. The Spanish Netherlands were ceded to Austria, together with other former Spanish possessions in Italy. Within a year Louis XIV was dead, having completed the longest reign of history, one of seventy-two years.

Formation of
the Pale

119. England and Ireland. — England's relations with Ireland began in the reign of Henry II, who sent an army to reës-

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[1] In 1707 commissioners appointed from both Scotland and England presented a plan for a more perfect union between the two nations, which had been in a personal union under one sovereign since the accession of Mary Stuart's son to the English throne. The separate parliament at Edinburgh was done away with, and forty-five representatives of the Scotch shires and towns were to be elected to the English House of Commons, while the Scotch lords elected sixteen of their own number to represent them in the House of Lords. About the same time Great Britain adopted the "Union Jack" as the official flag, forming it by superimposing the red cross of England upon the diagonal white cross of Scotland. Each country retained its own established church and legal, financial, and educational systems; but the union insured action upon all questions of foreign policy.

TERMS OF THE PEACE OF UTRECHT

tablish a native king on the throne of one of the four kingdoms into which the island was anciently divided. Because of this assistance Henry claimed overlordship over Ireland, but the English power was felt only in a small region around Dublin on the eastern coast, called the Pale. In the year following the battle of Bannockburn (see p. 235), Robert Bruce sent an unsuccessful expedition to drive the English out of Ireland. The descendants of the English barons, to whom Henry had granted fiefs within the Pale, had become more Irish than the Irish themselves and bitterly resented any action of the English government tending toward a closer control over the island. In a vain attempt to check the fusion of the Irish and English, Edward III issued the Statute of Kilkenny, which prohibited Statute of Kilkenny intermarriage between the two races, but the action was taken too late. During the troubled times of the Wars of the Roses the English rulers were too much occupied at home to attempt to check the growing independence of the Irish parliament which met at Dublin. When Henry VII became king, an insurrection in favor of a pretender to the English throne started in Ireland. This again drew the attention of England to Ireland, and led to the passage of Poynings's Law, which provided that all acts of Poynings's Law the Irish parliament must be approved by the English parliament. In this way Ireland was rendered dependent upon England, and as a result English rulers assumed the title of Lords of Ireland. Spenser, one of the Elizabethan poets, has left us this picture of the miserable condition of the native Irish in his day:

" Out of every corner of the woods and glens they come, creeping forth, for their legs could not bear them; they spoke like ghosts; they did eat the dead carrions, happy that they could find them."

At the close of the reign of Elizabeth the Irish again rebelled, The Ulster Plantation and this induced James I to declare two thirds of the northern part of Ireland confiscated and to settle therein a colony of Scotch Presbyterians — thus at one stroke punishing the rebel-

lious Irish and planting in their midst a guarantee of English supremacy. This colony, called the Ulster Plantations, produced a splendid type of men, the Scotch-Irish, who had a profound influence upon the building up of our own country. Charles's minister, Strafford, as governor of Ireland, continued this policy of confiscation and repression. After his execution parliament desired to exterminate the Irish Roman Catholics, but with his characteristic love of intrigue, Charles I made the Catholic lords in Ireland believe that if he could have his own way their religion would be respected. This induced them to begin the revolt which was one of the active causes of the Civil War in England. The coming of the Commonwealth saw the bloody repression of this rebellion by Cromwell. The Roman Catholic religion was forbidden; the lands of the native Irish were seized, and disorder was checked. Through all this harsh treatment the Irish people kept alive their independent spirit and a bitter hatred of all things English. For nearly three hundred years thereafter they have submitted to the superior force displayed by the larger island, but upon the horizon of future English politics there dawns the day when Ireland will take her place in the sisterhood of the British empire as a self-ruling part of the imperial federation.

The Future of Ireland

120. Social England under the Stuarts. — That England did not progress faster socially after the reign of Elizabeth was due to the intolerance of the seventeenth century. All sects were intolerant, Anglican or Puritan in power in turn persecuted all who disagreed with them in religious matters. It is singular that the most tolerant of the rulers was the least respectable. It was an age of extremes, as is well illustrated in the life, dress, and amusements of the Puritan as contrasted with the Royalist. The Puritan wore his hair short, hence the name " Roundhead " applied to Cromwell's soldiers by the Royalists. He dressed simply, fared frugally, shunned what he called " worldly amusements," and was happiest when listening to the long sermons of his Calvinistic minister. The Royalist " Cavalier " wore long

Puritans and Cavaliers

hair, costly clothing adorned with lace and embroidery, delighted in games of all sorts, even on Sunday, spending the morning at church service and the afternoon on the village or manor fields at all sorts of amusements.

CROMWELL'S FIRST VISIT TO MILTON

Milton, the Blind Poet, after the execution of Charles I, wrote a stirring exposition of the rights of the people.   For his services to the Puritan cause Cromwell made Milton the Secretary of the Council of State, a position which he filled with distinction for ten years.

In literature there are to be found like extremes. John Milton, whose greatest work was done after the Restoration, but whose spirit was so clearly of the Puritan period that he may be taken as the type of that literature, served Cromwell as secretary of state and composed scholarly prose works on

Puritan and Restoration Literature contrasted

Milton

public affairs, defending the protector's policy. After the restoration Milton became totally blind and retired to private life, where he dictated to his daughters his best works, among them " Paradise Lost," the greatest epic poem in the English language. In his writings there is expressed the same cold grandeur of thought, the same aloofness from common things that is found in the sermons of the great Calvinistic preachers of the period.

Bunyan

Another Puritan author was the Baptist preacher, John Bunyan, whose " Pilgrim's Progress " gives a clear idea of the religious ideas held by Dissenters during Charles II's reign. In allegorical form it shows the wickedness of the world and teaches what must be done in order to be saved from the results of sin. In strong contrast to these two authors are the works of Dryden and Pope, true exponents of the superficiality of the Restoration period. They, in witty dramas and musical but artificial poems, delight the ear, but show no deep thought.

Royal Society

One of the most significant indications of progress was the organization in 1662 of the Royal Society of London, which had for its object the promotion of scientific knowledge. One of its members was Sir Isaac Newton, who discovered the principle of gravitation. Another scientist, William Harvey, was the first to fully demonstrate that the blood circulates in the hu-

Influence of Coffee Houses and Newspapers

man body. The desire to find out and discuss new matters was aided by the coffee houses, and by newspapers, which were first issued at this period. In the coffee houses, which displaced the taverns as the fashionable meeting place for neighborhood gossip, the fragrant coffee, the cheering tea, and the wholesome chocolate were dispensed, all of them novelties to the English taste, and an opportunity was afforded to Englishmen to meet and discuss with unfuddled brains questions of public interest and policy.

Newspapers first appeared in the reign of James I, but did not become at all regular in issue until the time of the Civil War, when the great public questions were discussed in their columns.

During the later Stuart tyranny official censors were appointed, whose duties were to examine the material of the paper before publication, in order to prevent the appearance of any article attacking the government. With the general increase of personal liberty that attended the Revolution of 1688, this censorship was abolished, and except for a brief period during the time of the French Revolution, and the European War of 1914, England has since had true freedom of the press.

121. England and France at the Close of Early European History. — The changes in sovereigns in England had a profound influence upon the growth of political parties. The Revolution of 1688–9 had been effected by a union of patriotic men of both the Whig and Tory parties, but with the opening years of William III's reign party lines were again closely drawn. The gloomy personality of William and his inability to win the affection of his English subjects, forced him to distrust the English and to choose Dutchmen for important official positions. His ministers he chose from the Whig party, because it seemed the most enthusiastic in support of his plans, and thus laid the foundation for the modern cabinet system, in which the ministers are all of the majority party in the representative house.[1] In order to finance the wars with Louis XIV, parlia-

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL — LONDON

Erected during the Restoration Period.

Political and Economic Conditions in England

[1] The leader of the cabinet is called the prime minister, or premier. As long as the cabinet's measures are passed by the House of Commons it remains in office; but if strong opposition to its policies is shown, the cabinet must either resign and permit a ministry of the opposing party to be found, or request the ruler to dissolve parliament and call for a general

ment in 1692 directed the treasury to borrow a million pounds and to issue interest-paying bonds to the lenders, in this way establishing what is called the national debt.   These bonds are always marketable, as investors have confidence in the government's ability to pay interest, and they are never redeemed by the treasury.   Two years later a company of financiers was granted a charter to establish the Bank of England, which, in return for loans made to the government, is permitted to carry on a general banking business.

Anne was a Tory, because of her early associations, but she soon found herself forced to adopt Whig policies, — namely, those of favoring commerce and of carrying on foreign wars. Marlborough, whose political influence in England was as great as his military renown, forced the queen to choose a Whig ministry.   Notwithstanding several changes in the ministry, the death of Anne, in 1714, found the Whigs in control.   George, a member of the Hanoverian family — descendants of James I's daughter (see p. 302) — was invited to take the throne, and England became engrossed in the problems of the eighteenth century, which properly belong to a later study of the development of modern Europe.   Two great political customs became, during Anne's reign, settled parts of the workings of the English government: first, the ruler must choose the ministry from the majority party in the popular branch of parliament without regard to personal likes or dislikes; second, the ruler must approve and sign every bill passed by parliament.

France at the Close of Louis XIV's Reign   The autocratic power of the French kings, which had been developing for over a hundred years with intermissions of weakness, came to its height during the reign of Louis XIV. France had emerged from a second-rate position in European politics to that of mistress of affairs, able to dictate terms of peace or to bribe sovereigns to do her will.   Her natural boundaries had been extended to the Rhine and the Pyrenees.   The

election, in the hope that the people of the country may support it by returning those favoring its policies.

GROUP SHOWING COSTUMES AND SEDAN CHAIR

REAPING AND HARVESTING

Second half of the seventeenth century.

splendor of her court dazzled the eyes of all beholders.   The
government had been centralized into the hands of the ruler —

but at what a cost!   The common people were discontented,
over-taxed, starving; the rich were corrupt, idle, and frivolous;
the ruler was an illustrious example of human vanity and weak-
ness;   trade and manufacturing were under heavy burdens;
religious freedom had been stifled; the luxuries of the court were
maintained only by ruinous loans obtained from foreign nations
and individuals.   The day of payment was to come and the won-
der of it all is that it took three quarters of a century for the eyes
of the people to be opened.   The France of Louis XIV was little
changed when the French Revolution broke upon her people
except that these conditions which we have described were a
little less endurable and life less worth living.   The splendor of
the court was a hollow mockery, which the hands of the
Revolutionists dashed to the ground.

122. Summary of the Rise of Modern England. — The
seventeenth century saw in England the most important con-
stitutional progress yet made by that nation.   James I asserted
his " divine right " to rule over England without hindrance
from parliament.   His son adopted the same policy which
brought forth the Petition of Right and at last the Civil War.
After Charles failed in his attempt to rule without parliament,
Long Parliament passed a series of great constitutional laws
and began war on the monarchy.   Defeated by the generalship
of Cromwell, Charles was tried and executed.   After a period of
republican government the Commonwealth was overthrown
by the army and Cromwell made himself king in all but
name.   At his death the Stuart line was restored to the throne.
Charles II endeavored to force a policy of religious toleration
upon his people, and as a result the Whig and Tory parties
were formed.   James II failed to restore Catholicism and arbi-
trary rule and was driven out in 1688 by the Whigs led by
William of Orange.   The policies of Richelieu and Louis XIV
placed France at the head of European politics, while the sub-

serviency of Charles II to France checked the national progress of England. The century saw in England two widely different classes of political and religious thought, which were typified in the Puritan and the Cavalier.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of the world show the voyages and trading centers of the English during the reign of Elizabeth. On a map of Europe show the terms of the Peace of Westphalia. On a map of England show the division of the country during the Civil War. In your note-books write up one or more of the following topics: The plays of Shakespeare; The rank of Bacon; The Hampton Court Conference and James I's attitude toward Presbyterianism; James I and his favorites; The events of the Civil War in England; The character and place in history of Oliver Cromwell; The Rye-house and Gunpowder plots compared; The trial of the seven bishops (reign of James II); The Mutiny and Habeas Corpus Acts; The history of Germany from the Peace of Augsburg to the Thirty Years' Wars; The character of the restoration drama and literature in England. The work of the Elizabethan seamen; The declaration of Breda.

(The following topics are to be found in Beard's *English Historians.*) Elizabeth and English insularity, 307; The religious situation of the continent, 310; England and the continental system, 311; Position of the Bible in Elizabethan literature, 321; James I and the Puritans, 331; The English parliament in the seventeenth century, 339; James I and parliament, 343; The parliamentary crisis of 1629, 347; Character of Laud, 355; The Puritan Sabbath, 359; Long parliament and the peaceful revolution, 364; Charles I and his accusers, 373; Cromwell and parliament, 381; Restoration settlement in church and state, 391; James II and the Catholic reaction, 404; The protests of the bishops, 413; The revolution and settlement of 1688, 417; Union of Scotland and England.

(The following topics are to be found in Cheyney's *Readings*, 408–571.) Description of Elizabeth, 361–62, 374–81; Commerce and explorations, 394–403; Mary Queen of Scots and the Armada, 403–408; Views of James I, 418–36; Francis Bacon and Raleigh, 436–443; Petition of Right, 458–60; The impeachment of Strafford, 467–72; The crisis of 1642, 473–78; Trial and execution of Charles I, 485–94; The commonwealth, 495–504; The restoration settlement, 505; Social conditions under Charles II, 515–32; Death of Charles II and accession of James I, 532–39; The revolution of 1688, 539–50; Bill of Rights, 545–47; Mutiny Act, 550; Union with Scotland, 566–67; Conditions in Ireland, 567–71.

(The following topics are based on Tickner, *Social and Industrial History of England*, Longmans.) Tudor economic conditions, 255–67; The London of good Queen Bess in working garb, 268–81; The London

of good Queen Bess in holiday mood, 282–97; Shakespeare and his contemporaries, 298–313; The Tudor monarchy, 314–28; John Milton and John Dryden, 429–44.

(The following topics are based on Synge, *Social Life in England*, Barnes.) "Merrie England," 161–89; Changes in architecture, dress, manners, amusements, 190; The Puritans, 191–206; The Commonwealth, 207–18; The restoration, 219–34; After the revolution, 1689–1702, 235–49; Under "Good Queen Anne," 251–65.

FURTHER READINGS

Cheyney, *Short History*, pp. 280–84, 297, 340–515.
Cheyney, *Social England*, pp. 141–76, 490–98.
Kendall, *Source Book*, pp. 155–78; 188–208, 225–31, 270–74.
Hill, *Liberty Documents*, Petition of Right, Chapter VI; Bill of Rights, Chapter IX; Habeas Corpus Act, Chapter VIII.

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*.
West Indies and Central America, p. 105; Europe about 1560, p. 119; Europe at opening of Thirty Years' Wars, p. 120; The War, p. 121; Peace of Westphalia, pp. 122–23; British Isles, p. 127.

A TABLE OF ENGLISH RULERS

KING EGBERT = Redburg

King Ethelwolf = Judith

King Ethelbald   King Ethelbert   King Ethelred I   King Alfred = Elswith

Eguina (1st wife) = King Edward = Elfleda (2nd wife)

King Athelstan   King Edmund = Elgiva   Edred

Elfred (1st wife) = King Edgar = Elfrida (2nd wife)

King Edward the Martyr   Elgiva (1st wife) = King Ethelred II the Unready = Emma

King Edmund Ironside = Eldgyth   King Edward the Confessor
(Last of the Saxon Kings)

Edward Atheling the Exile = Agatha

King William I (the Conqueror) = Maud   Edgar Atheling   St. Margaret = King Malcolm
(Last of the Saxon   of Scotland   of Scotland.
Princes)

King William II (Rufus)   Adela = Stephen of Blois   King Henry I = Matilda
(1st wife)

King Stephen   Geoffrey Plantagenet = Maud
(Last of the Norman Kings)

King Henry II = Eleanor of Aquitaine

King Richard I = Berengaria   King John = Isabel of Angoulême

King Henry III = Eleanor of Provence

King Edward I = Eleanor of Castile

King Edward II = Isabel of France

King Edward II = Isabel of France

King Edward III. = Philippa of Hainault

Edward the Black = Joan   Blanche = John of Gaunt = Katharine   Edmund = Isabel
Prince   Swynford

King = Anne of   King Henry IV = Mary   John Marquis = Margaret   Anne = Richard
Richard II Bohemia   of Dorset   of York

King = Katharine = Owen Tudor   John Beaufort = Margaret   Richard = Cicely
Henry V | of France   Neville

King = Margaret   Edmund = Margaret   King = Elizabeth   King Richard III = Ann
Henry | of Anjou   Earl of   Edward | Woodville   (Last of the Plan- |Neville
VI.   Richmond   IV   tagenet Kings)

Edward = Anne Neville   King Henry VII = Elizabeth   King Edward V   Richard   Edward

King = Katharine of Aragon = Anne Boleyn = Jane Seymour   King James IV = Margaret
Henry VIII| (1st wife)   (2nd wife) | (3rd wife)   of Scotland |

Queen Mary = Philip of   Queen Elizabeth   King Edward VI   King James V = Mary of
Spain   (Last of the Tudor   of |Lorraine
Sovereigns)   Scotland.

Francis, King of France (1st husband) = Mary, Queen of Scots = Henry Stuart, Lord
Darnley

King James I = Anne of Denmark

King Charles I = Henrietta Maria   Frederick, King of Bohemia = Elizabeth

King Charles II = Catherine   King James II = Mary

King = Queen   George = Queen Anne   Ernest Augustus = Sophia
William III Mary II   of Denmark   (Last of the Stuart Sovereigns)   of Hanover |

King George I = Sophia of Zell

King George II = Wilhelmina Charlotte Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach

CHAPTER XV

COLONIAL ENGLAND

123. Explorations and Early Settlements before James- Origin of
town. — England's first venture in the field of exploration in English Claims in the new world was made by John Cabot, an Italian resident of America Bristol, England. Sailing under the orders of Henry VII, he discovered land in the vicinity of the mouth of the St. Lawrence. From a map engraved by his son, it is supposed that this expedition coasted as far south as Cape Cod. Upon this discovery rested the English claim to the North American continent. England was slower to take advantage of her discoveries than Spain or Portugal. The latter nations had established colonies in America early in the sixteenth century, but England's first permanent colony was not planted until the reign of James I, although an attempt had been made by Raleigh at the close of Elizabeth's reign. This slowness on the part of England may be accounted for in three ways: first, England was too poor to finance expeditions, and the northern portion of America did not furnish the abundant supply of precious metals which the Spaniards found in Peru and Mexico; second, England was weaker politically than the other colonizing nations of that century, which, by reason of commerce or of greater territorial possessions, were powers of the first rank; third, England was too busy settling religious questions, whereas neither Spain nor Portugal had any religious question, there being but one faith permitted in those countries, and that the Roman Catholic.

The Spanish discoveries were in that part of the new world Growth of which was inhabited by branches of the Indian race, which Spanish were both wealthy and physically weak. The motives of the Colonies

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Effect on Spain

Spanish explorers were mainly to secure gold, but they were also fond of adventure. Mexico and Peru afforded both, and in consequence the Spanish empire in America grew rapidly. Vast quantities of gold and silver were taken back to Spain. Wealth so easily got caused the Spanish nation to become lazy and extravagant, unwilling to perform honest labor, and possessing less incentive to build colonies than to make conquests over an inferior and servile people. The Spanish territories in America, therefore, were of vast extent, but did not represent an extension of the nation, as did those of England, but merely conquered provinces.

French Colonies

During the sixteenth century France planted short-lived colonies which failed because of religious and political differences in France. At the opening of the seventeenth century France established a colony at Port Royal in South Carolina that was soon destroyed by the Spaniards; other settlements, in Acadia on the Bay of Fundy and at Quebec on the St. Law-

The French as Colonists

rence (1608), were more successful. The French colonists were of a different type from those of Spain. The latter were adventurers or soldiers of fortune who hoped to acquire vast wealth at the expense of the natives or else to carve out provinces as large as empires over which they should rule as viceroys. The French were industrious farmers or roaming hunters, who really made the new world a home because of its freedom from political and religious restriction. That they were finally driven out by the English was due to the mistakes made by the French monarchs in allowing their favorites to plunder the colonists, in refusing them representative institutions, and in being intolerant in religion. Of all the colonizing nations the French were most successful in their dealings with the Indians, as is shown by the readiness with which the natives fought at their side in the intercolonial wars of the early eighteenth century.

Motives for English Colonization

The motives of the English settlers ranged from the desire to escape religious oppression that actuated the Pilgrims, to the desire for gold that inspired the Jamestown colonists. The

disputes between king and parliament during the first half of the seventeenth century prevented the home government from interfering in colonial affairs; consequently the New England and Virginian colonists were thrown on their own resources and gained strength by self-government. Favoritism had little influence on the English colonies except during the reign of Charles II, and the only religious intolerance which hampered the development of these colonies was that of a few of the colonists themselves; but as the colonies differed somewhat from each other in religious belief, those persecuted were, in most instances, able to find toleration by adopting the simple expedient of moving to another colony. Furthermore the English colonies were strengthened by the short-sighted policy of Louis XIV in forcing the Huguenots to abandon the French settlements for those of England. Over-population of England and the economic distress produced by changing methods in industry also were factors in causing the colonization of America.

124. Virginia a Typical Southern Colony. — Visions of gold mines blinded the sixteenth century explorer in America. The seventeenth century saw new motives at work, especially in England. We hear less of ships loaded with "fool's gold" and more about the planting of corn and of tobacco culture. Conditions in England at the opening of the seventeenth century favored colonization. The lands of England were insufficient to support the population, the demand for more skilful workmen had displaced English workers with French, Flemish, or Dutch, while many Puritans wished greater religious liberty. All of these reasons were at work in sending constantly increasing streams of emigrants across the Atlantic.

The English colonies were established in three different ways: first, by chartered companies, such as the Virginia Company, which colonized Virginia; second, by private companies of adventurous men, who, instead of remaining at home as in the case of the chartered companies and sending out expeditions to win profits for the stockholders, chose the more perilous lot of

Three Methods of Colonization

colonists for themselves, as did the Massachusetts Bay Puritans; third, by private individuals or proprietors, such as Baltimore or Penn.   In 1606 James I chartered a Virginia company in two sub-divisions, the London and Plymouth, granting to the former the land between 34° and 38° north latitude, and to the latter the land between 41° and 45°.   The intervening region was open to settlers from either subcompany, provided that neither should settle within a hundred miles of the other.

The Virginian Company and its two Sub-divisions
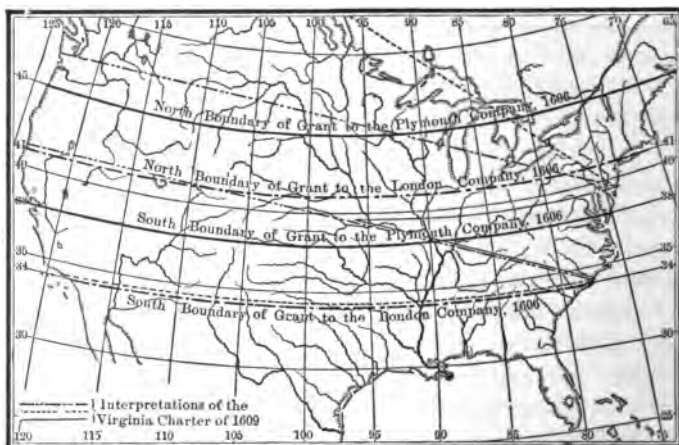
THE CHARTERS OF 1606 AND 1609

The Charter of 1609

John Smith was one of the leading men in the expedition sent over in 1607 by the London Company.   By virtue of his superior executive ability he assumed a despotic control over the Jamestown colony of " needy gentlemen " and brought it safely through its first two years.   The charter granted to the London Company in 1609 is of special interest because it shows the exceedingly vague geographical knowledge concerning the new world possessed by Europeans of that day, and also because it gave rise to many disputes between Virginia and her neighbors over the extent of her possessions.   The charter reads: " We

grant all those lands in that part of America called Virginia, from the point of land called Point Comfort, all along the seacoast to the northward, two hundred miles; and from Point Comfort, all along the seacoast to the southward, two hundred miles; and all that space of land, lying from the seacoast aforesaid, up into the land from sea to sea, west and northwest."

After Smith a succession of arbitrary governors, appointed by the king, gave the settlers little chance to develop politically. At last the tyranny of one of these governors caused the rise of a popular party in 1618. Sir Edmund Sandys and the Earl of Southampton, both identified with the parliamentary movement that led to the Petition of Right (see p. 345), at this time got control of the company in London, and as a result the colon-

First Colonial Legislature

CHURCH TOWER AT JAMESTOWN

This picture, from a recent photograph, shows the old brick tower at Jamestown — all that remains of John Smith's famous colony.

ists were allowed to have a legislature, called the House of Burgesses, which was composed of two representatives from each local division of the colony.

In the same year in which this legislature first met, 1619, the first shipload of negroes was sold at auction in the streets of Jamestown. The reason for the introduction of slavery may be found in the character of the first English colonists. They were unable or unwilling to perform manual labor. Smith had to force men to work by refusing them food from the common store

The Labor Problem

unless they had earned it. Before the end of the century the number of slaves exceeded that of the whites, even including the indentured white servants. The latter were of two types: English men and women too poor to pay their passage to America, who sold their services for a term of years to satisfy the terms of the ship-master; and English debtors, beggars, even criminals, who were deported from England as undesirable citizens.

Character of Virginian Agriculture and its Political Results

Slave labor was employed in the tobacco fields, and tobacco was practically the only export. To grow tobacco successfully required large plantations, because it quickly exhausts the fertility of the soil on which it is grown. The planter needed fresh fields every few years, and for this reason the settlements of Virginia were widely separated by stretches of forest and waste land. The need for the assembly of burgesses from each county is evident. This assembly early showed the independent spirit of the colonists, which received encouragement from the liberal-minded members of the London Company. Such opposition was distasteful to the king. At the close of his reign a dispute arose between the king and the officers of the company, and a suit was brought in the king's court for the revocation of the company's charter. From the accession of Charles I, Virginia became a royal colony. The government of a royal colony, or province, consisted of a governor, appointed by the king, the governor's council, and a legislature. The council was a group of men, chosen by the governor, to advise him and to control the various executive departments, somewhat as our cabinet acts. The governor and council formed the highest colonial court, from which appeal could be taken to the king of England. The council usually formed the upper house of the legislature, the lower house of which was elected by the people.

Government of a Royal Colony or Province

The governor received a regular salary, but the power to collect taxes for the payment of salaries and for other expenses of government was claimed by the colonial legislatures on the ground that it was the English custom for parliament to authorize the king to collect taxes. The colonists claimed that their

The Question of Taxation

legislatures stood in the same relation to their governors as parliament stood to the king, but this claim was not allowed by the English government and became one of the chief causes of the American Revolution. Several governors attempted to compel their legislatures to assent to certain measures of taxation, but with little success.

After the execution of Charles I and the establishment of the Commonwealth, Virginia at first remained loyal to the Stuarts, even extending an invitation to the future Charles II to abandon his disloyal home country and to come to America to rule. When a fleet, having on board commissioners from parliament, appeared in the harbor of Jamestown, the Puritan element in the colony got control, drove out their governor, Berkeley, and during the administrations of three governors successively elected by the colonists in their House of Burgesses, Virginia was almost entirely independent. The wave of loyalty that swept over Englishmen at the time of the Restoration made the Royalists of Virginia recall Berkeley, a narrow-minded, conservative, bigoted Royalist, who was as tactless in his management of the burgesses as Charles I had been in his dealings with parliament. *Virginia during the Commonwealth*

It is not strange that during the administration of Berkeley occurred the first serious rebellion of American history. Irritated by the bullying ways of the governor and by his refusal to call for a new election to the House of Burgesses, which in 1675 was made up of the same fanatical Royalists who had been chosen at the restoration of royal rule in Virginia, and smarting at the governor's inaction against the Indian raids, Nathaniel Bacon, a Puritan burgess, organized a small troop of volunteers for defence against the Indians. Upon Berkeley's refusal to sanction these measures for the protection of the liberties and lives of the colonists, Bacon led his troops against the governor. Unfortunately for Virginia, there was no one able to take his place when he died suddenly,[1] in the midst of *Bacon's Rebellion*

[1] From fever, or, as some believe, poisoned by Berkeley's hirelings.

his successful campaign, and Berkeley ruthlessly put down the rebellion. But Bacon's work lasted, for before turning his men against the governor, defeating his army and burning James-town, he had crushed the Indian raiders on the Rappahannock, and the colonists had no more to fear in that direction. He had also taught them to stand together against oppression, with such success that Berkeley was shortly afterward recalled to England by Charles II, who exclaimed with disgust: "That old fool has taken away more lives in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father."

The rest of the history of Virginia, up to within a few years of the Revolution, is the story of royalist supremacy, and of a constant struggle between the governors and the assem-blies over taxation. "The people were clannish and narrow, having little sympathy or communication with the outer world. Political power was for the most part in the hands of the aristocratic planters backed by the middle class. Religion was at a low ebb. The professions of law and medicine were scarcely recognized. The manners of the upper class were often coarse, while those of the lowest whites were not seldom brutal." [1] Yet in spite of these adverse conditions, the English love of personal liberty flourished in this colony, and, a century later produced strong men for the cause of American freedom.

125. Other Southern Colonies. — A typical proprietary colony, Maryland, was granted to George Calvert, an English Roman Catholic, and settled by his son Cecil, who received the title of Lord Baltimore. Baltimore governed this colony much as the king governed a royal colony, by sending out a governor who chose a council and called for a popularly elected assembly. The Maryland Assembly claimed the right of sharing in legis-

lation and of originating taxation. In 1649 the assembly passed the famous Toleration Act, which permitted Christians of any sect to settle on the lands of the colony. This was the first expression in law of the American doctrine concerning

[1] Thwaites, *The Colonies*, p. iii.
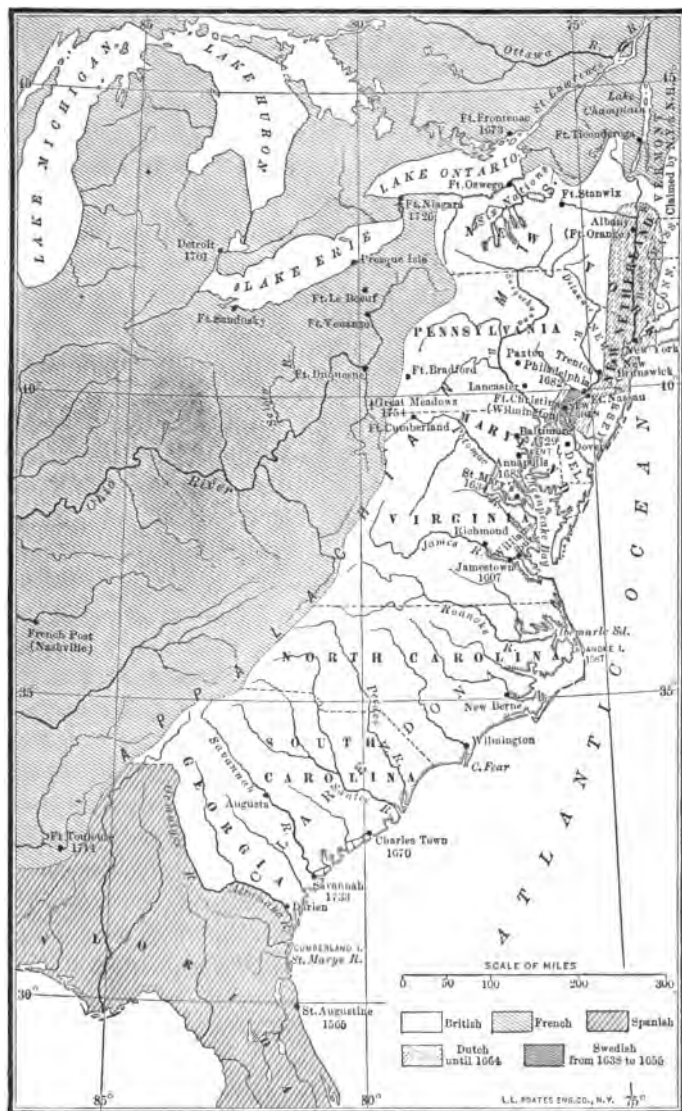
THE MIDDLE AND SOUTHERN COLONIES

church and state. Observe that it provided for toleration merely like that of Nantes (see p. 317), not for religious freedom, and that it was passed by a Puritan assembly and signed by a Catholic governor. Such a strange alliance may be better understood when it is known that the charter granted to Calvert stipulated that the Anglican Church should be the recognized church of the colony.

Frontier Colonies
The Carolinas and Georgia were frontier colonies on what was then the Spanish frontier, and represent the extension of English rule to the south of Virginia. The territory between Virginia and Florida was granted by Charles II to a group of his favorite nobles, although New England and Virginia explorers and settlers were already on the lands thus flung away. **South Carolina** Charlestown was established in the winter of 1670, and hundreds of French Huguenots, fleeing from the persecution that began with the repeal of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV, took refuge there. A small party of Scotch Presbyterians located further south, but were driven out by the Spaniards. The lords proprietors would not allow the colonists to make reprisal because England and Spain were then at peace. This and other grievances caused a growth of the spirit of independence in the Carolinas which prompted the colonists to drive out several exacting governors sent from England by the proprietors.

North Carolina
The colonists in the northern part of Carolina were principally borderers, constantly at war with the Indian tribes, especially with the Tuscaroras, one of the Iroquois nations. Not until the second decade of the eighteenth century was the fear of these Indians dispelled by their defeat and consequent migration to join their northern brethren, the Five Nations of New York, the most formidable of all the Eastern Indians.

Georgia
Georgia, named after George II, was founded in 1732 by General Oglethorpe, a philanthropic Englishman, who desired to make a home for English debtors; for at this time debtors were thrown into jail as if they were criminals. It was hoped

that this colony would serve as a buffer between the Span-
iards in Florida and the flourishing town of Charleston, and
also assist in increasing the English fur-trade with the South-
ern Indians. Georgia was defined as the land extending from
the Altamaha to the Savannah River; its government was
placed exclusively in the hands of the trustees; religious tol-
eration for all Protestant
sects was guaranteed;
while slavery and the
liquor traffic were abso-
lutely forbidden within its
borders. The population
was composed principally
of English petty criminals
and debtors, but there
were also many German
Protestants and Scotch
settlers. Oglethorpe was
prominent in the early
intercolonial wars. After
his return to England in
1743 his successors were

HAMPTON COURT PALACE GREAT HALL

unsuccessful in the governorship, and in 1752 Georgia was
constituted a royal province.

126. The Massachusetts Settlements. — During the closing
years of the reign of Elizabeth a group of English Separatists
had settled in Holland to escape from the vigorous enforcement
of laws against Dissenters caused by the national indignation
against the Catholic country of Spain. While James I was on
his way from Scotland to the capital, he was presented with a
petition by clergymen in which they expressed a desire for exten-
sive reforms in the established church. His reply, characteristic
of the man, was given before a conference at Hampton Court.
He said that they must conform or he would " harry them out
of the land." This unfavorable attitude of the king caused a

*Hampton
Court Con-
ference*

The Scrooby Church

Puritan congregation at Scrooby, England, to join the Separatists already in Holland.   But Holland was an unfavorable location then for a colony of religiously inclined folk, for the armies of Spain and France had been campaigning there for a generation, and consequently the Dutch people had been somewhat coarsened by their contact with the soldiery.

The Pilgrims

After several years of residence in Holland, the Englishmen settled there perceived that they must move again in order to prevent their children from acquiring the characteristics of the Dutch people, and finally deciding to emigrate to the new world, obtained permission from the London Company to settle in Virginia.   They crossed the Atlantic in the fall of 1620, but by an error of the captain of their ship, the *Mayflower*, they landed on the bleak shore of Cape Cod, where they were forced to settle in the midst of winter.   Within the year they had drawn up a document, the Mayflower Compact, which provided for the government of the little colony, and had elected William Bradford governor.   They called their settlement Plymouth, because it lay within the bounds of the Plymouth Company's grant.   (See p. 376.)

Character of Plymouth Colony

All the colonists met together in a town meeting to discuss public matters.   This continued until other settlements were made in the neighborhood, when it became necessary to adopt a representative form of government.   They established friendly relations with the Indians, who showed them how to raise corn. For a few years all property was held in common and provisions were stored in a common storehouse, from which all drew their supplies.   This system was abandoned when it became apparent that the colonists were not sufficiently unselfish and energetic to carry it on.[1]   The life of these Pilgrim Fathers was simple and austere, their faith Calvinistic, and their government more nearly a democracy than that of any other people of that time.

[1] Because common ownership failed to be successful in an age of general ignorance, selfishness, and strong individual bias is not conclusive proof that society will never be ready for such a reform.
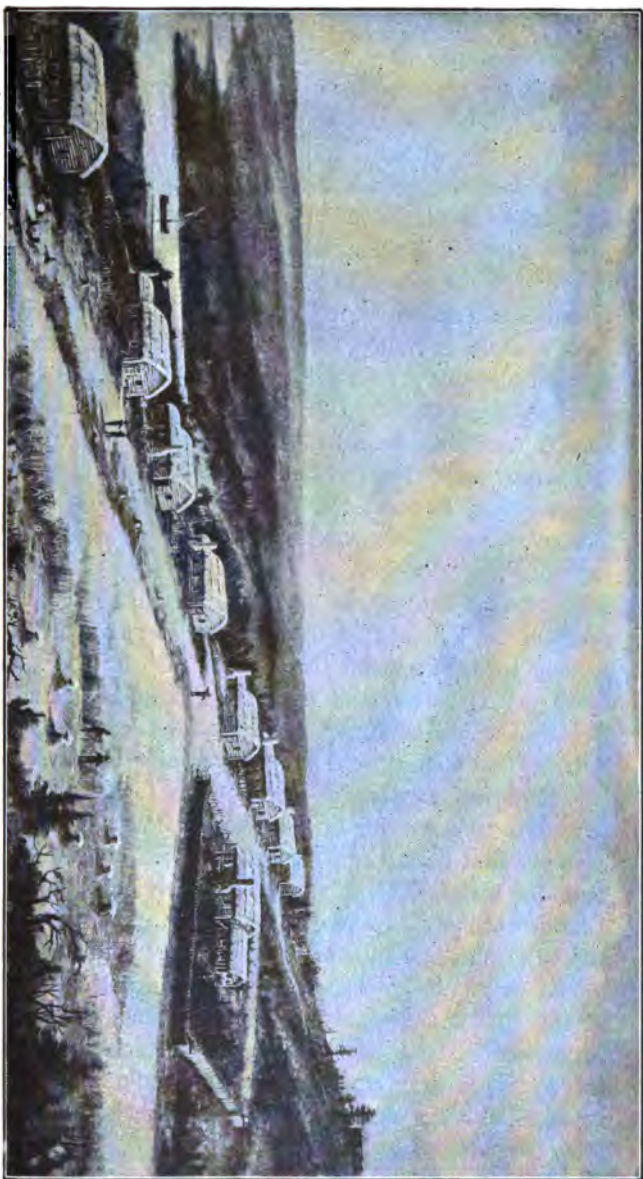
PLYMOUTH COLONY, 1622

An imaginary picture of the settlement. The building within the enclosure was Governor Bradford's home. The homes of the other colonists are shown on the side hill. The fort was at the top of the hill.

Reasons for
the Establish-
ment of
Massa-
chusetts
Bay Colony

The Pilgrims were fugitives from the worldliness and oppression of Europe, whereas the founders of the Massachusetts colony were actuated by a desire to found a colony in which the Puritan belief could be made obligatory, to work out their theories of government, and to furnish a refuge for those of the middle class of England who were fleeing from the harsh policy of Charles I and Laud.   The policy of the king, which drew forth the Petition of Right, caused the formation of an association of prominent Puritans, who obtained from the king a charter to establish a self-governing colony.   The dissolution of parliament and the beginning of personal rule induced the leaders to sign an agreement at Cambridge binding themselves to carry through their project.   In 1629 these Puritans transferred their charter with them to Salem, their first settlement on the shore of Massachusetts Bay.   While Charles I was ruling absolutely, thousands of Puritans left England and settled the towns of Boston, Charlestown, and Cambridge.   Boston became the capital.   The territory granted this colony included all the land between the parallel passing through a point three miles north of the Merrimac and every part thereof, and the parallel passing through a point three miles south of the Charles and every point thereof, and from the Atlantic indefinitely westward.   The establishment of many settlements within this territory made the problem of government difficult, until the expedient was adopted of having each town send two representatives to a meeting of the General Court, or legislature.

In the first decade of its growth this colony had to bear the brunt of three different attacks; namely, an attack upon its established church system, an attempt to overturn its charter, and a dangerous Indian war.   Roger Williams, pastor of the Salem church, preached that the church should be entirely separate from the state and that religious qualifications for voting should be abolished.   He also attacked the validity of the charter on the ground that the king had no right to grant the lands without the consent of the Indians, who were their right-
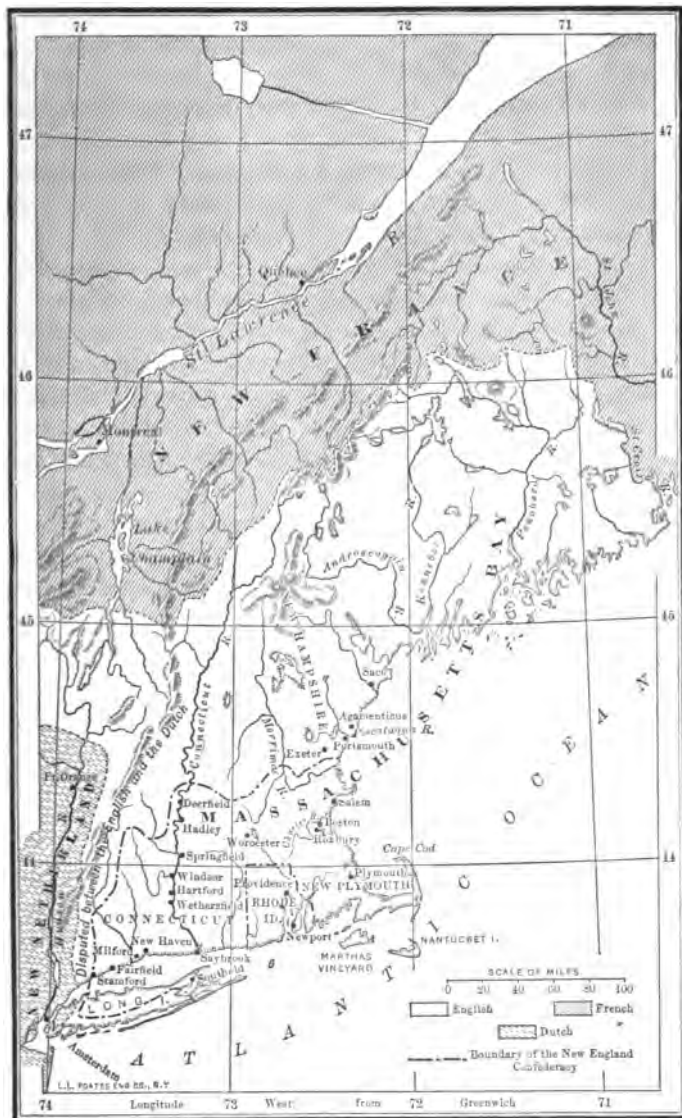
THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

ful owners.[1]   He was tried by the General Court and banished from Massachusetts Colony.   He then went to the shores of Narragansett Bay and with a score of followers established Providence Plantations, which were later to grow into the state of Rhode Island.

The Council for New England

The second attack was made by the non-Puritan members of the Council for New England, who desired to control the prosperous New England colony.   They induced Charles I to annul the charter of the company and to make a new grant of New England to themselves, but the trouble with parliament prevented the king from enforcing the change.   The colonists paid no attention to this attack upon their liberties, and the Puritan Revolution put an end to the project.   The third danger came from an Indian rising.   This was put down by the settlers in Connecticut, and the Pequods, the hostile tribe, were nearly destroyed.

Unit of Government in New England land and in Virginia compared

The unit of government in Virginia was the county, because of the scarcity of settlements and the great extent of territory covered by the colony: whereas in Massachusetts the unit was the town, with its meetings of citizens to discuss and vote upon all important questions.   This town meeting elected certain officials, called selectmen, to carry on town business.   Although there was much of democracy in New England, it was one in which the principal families took the lead.   Chief in importance was the office of the minister, who in most cases deserved the respect paid by the people to his office.   The principal occupation of the people was farming, yet there was some manufacturing of everyday articles and the lumbering industry was prosperous.   Toward the close of the seventeenth century the trade circuit was well established.   Yankee skippers, loading their

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[1] Roger Williams was the first exponent in America of the American theory as to the relation between church and state; but in opposition to his view concerning the right of the colonists to the land, it is urged that the Indians had no conception of land ownership, and that therefore they could not have been deprived of something of which they knew nothing.

ships with rum and other New England products, sailed for Africa, where they exchanged their cargoes for negro slaves, which they carried back to the West Indies and sold for sugar and molasses to be turned into rum on their return to New England. Each round voyage thus brought three profits to the owner, and the foundation of the fortunes of many of the oldest houses in New England was thus laid.

The principal towns were Boston, New Haven, and Newport, which were important shipping centers, but there were also a considerable number of country villages in which the inhabitants lived almost as comfortably as in the larger towns. Each town had its public school and near Boston and in New Haven were located Harvard and Yale colleges; the former established in the first decade of the colony's existence, the latter in the year 1700. Moral standards were high and crime was severely punished. We read much of the ducking stools, stocks, pillories, and whipping posts for the punishment of small offences. The church was organized on the congregational model and church membership was required for citizenship. The people of New England were more religious than those of the southern colonies. *Principal Towns*

127. Development of American Institutions in New England. — Massachusetts Bay Colony was the mother of the other New England colonies. Rhode Island was formed by the union of Roger Williams's settlement at Providence with other settlements on Narragansett Bay. This colony was the refuge for all dissenters from the Separatist and Puritan congregations of the northern colonies. In 1639 three settlements in the Connecticut valley — Windsor, Hartford, and Weathersfield — adopted the first written constitution which actually established a government. This document, known as the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, provided for the establishment of an assembly of representatives from each town and for the election of a governor by popular vote. There was no religious qualification for voting. The importance of this constitution in shaping the form of our government cannot be overestimated. New *Massachusetts Bay the Mother of Colonies* *Rhode Island* *Connecticut*

New Haven
1638

New Hamp-
shire 1630

Maine

Reasons for
the Formation
of the New
England Con-
federation

Constitution

Haven was founded by a group of extreme Puritans, thirty miles west of the other Connecticut settlements, and remained an independent colony until the reign of Charles II, when, as a punishment for its resistance to his demands, it was annexed to Connecticut. A settlement at Portsmouth, on the Piscataqua River, became the leading town among the settlements between that river and the Merrimac, and was the nucleus of the colony of New Hampshire. During most of the seventeenth century New Hampshire was governed by Massachusetts. The region between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec rivers had been granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, an Anglican member of the Council for New England. His settlements were also added to the territory controlled by Massachusetts. The title to his colony of Maine was purchased by the larger colony, and Massachusetts governed this region as a province until after the Revolution (1820).

The breach between king and parliament; the need for united action against the attacks of the Dutch, their nearest neighbors on the south; the fear of a French and Indian raid through the Connecticut valley, were the reasons for the formation of a union between the four leading colonies (1643). This league, styled the United Colonies of New England, was entered into by Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. Rhode Island was excluded because of its heretical religious views, while Maine and New Hampshire were looked upon as dependencies of Massachusetts Bay.

The twelve articles of its constitution provided for a congress of eight commissioners, two from each colony, who were to choose a presiding officer. The commissioners had the power to make war or peace, to arrange treaties with other colonies, to organize and annex additional territory to the confederation, and to determine the amount necessary to be raised for war purposes. The expenses of war were to be assessed according to population. As over one half of this population resided in Massachusetts this put the heaviest burden upon her, without giving her a

correspondingly important voice in the deliberations of congress. The commissioners were to meet as often as necessary, at least annually. Like the congress of the confederation of American colonies after the Revolution, this commission failed **Defects** to govern the country properly because it had no power to enforce its laws. It was chosen by the four general courts, to which it could suggest laws, but had no way of compelling their passage. This weakness was shown during the period of the English Commonwealth when three colonies voted for war with the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, but Massachusetts nullified their action by refusing to sanction war. The principal **Service** service of the New England Confederation was in accustoming the colonies to act together even in small matters.

The downfall of the Commonwealth and the return of the Stuarts brought the sturdy and independent colonies of the New England Confederation again prominently before the eyes **Three** of Englishmen. Among the various religious sects that had **Reasons for** arisen during the Stuart reigns was that of the Society of Friends, **Commission** commonly called Quakers. Their founder, George Fox, taught **to investigate** that all formality, whether in government or church, was con- **Affairs** trary to the literal teachings of the Bible. In consequence the Quakers became extremely democratic in their views and practices. They refused to take an oath on the ground that it was contrary to the teaching, " Swear not at all," and would not accord the usual deference to the officers of the law. The Puritans were incensed at the Quakers for these reasons and the Commissioners of the New England Confederation advised the colonies to banish them on pain of death if they returned. Several Quakers suffered martyrdom in Boston because they denied the right of Massachusetts Bay Colony to pass such a law, and were badly treated in other colonies, except in Maryland and Rhode Island, where religious toleration prevailed.

The Quakers were not without some political influence in England, and their appeal to Charles II from the court of Massachusetts interested the king against the confederation.

Charges of unjust treatment had also been filed by New Hampshire and Maine. For these reasons Charles sent out a commission to investigate affairs in New England. This commission was unable to pin the Massachusetts General Court down to a direct statement of its loyalty to the king, so, after assisting in the capture of New Amsterdam, its members returned much chagrined to England. Because Connecticut had treated the commissioners well, Charles gave that colony a favorable charter and the control of New Haven, which had scorned his envoys. He granted a liberal charter also to Rhode Island, perhaps because she had suffered at the hands of Massachusetts Bay. Finally, the latter colony lost her charter and was proclaimed a royal province.

Beginnings of a Real Colonial Policy

The following year (1685) James II succeeded to the throne and sent over Sir Edmund Andros, as governor of the Dominion of New England, which was made up of all the New England colonies under the leadership of Massachusetts Bay. Andros was an uncompromising Royalist, honest and fearless, but exceedingly tactless and arbitrary in his relations with the New Englanders, and soon aroused a spirit of opposition. In order to bring all the English colonies together under one colonial administration, he proceeded against the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island and joined both colonies to the Dominion. In 1688 the colonies of New York and New Jersey were also added, and were ruled by Andros' deputy, who was stationed at New York. Andros ruled without calling together the legislatures, appointed all officers to suit his convenience, raised and collected taxes without consulting the people — in short, carrying out the policy of Charles I as king. When the news of the " Glorious Revolution " reached America early in 1689, the colonists arrested Andros, and acting under their former charters, proclaimed William and Mary their sovereigns, thus accomplishing a bloodless revolution.

New England was greatly aided by the course of events in the mother country. Founded at the very beginning of a

struggle between king and parliament, this contest at home pre-
vented the king from controlling the obedience of his colonists.
The revolution from 1641 to 1660 threw the colonists upon their
own resources and enabled them to build up a strong system of
self-government and to attain some measure of union in the
New England Confederation. The Revolution of 1688–9
resulted in the grant of new charters to Massachusetts, Con-
necticut, and Rhode Island, in which the liberties of the people
were safeguarded by provision for popular assemblies. The
governors were usually appointed by the crown, and fortunately
for the colonies were usually men of inferior ability. They
quarrelled with their assemblies over the salary question, but
always had to compromise with the people. The power and
influence of the crown was consequently weakened. Thus the
colonists learned by practice how to resist acts of arbitrary
executive interference, so that by 1760 the colonies were ready to
unite in opposition to the home government.

During the period of the New England Confederation, which
was ended by the Revolution of 1688, Massachusetts coined
the famous pine-tree shilling, which was accepted even in Eng-
land although not at its full value. Massachusetts was also
the first colony to use paper currency. The colonies exported
mostly raw materials, in payment for which Europe sent manu-
factured goods. Whatever silver money there was in the colonies
was speedily paid out to European merchants. This scarcity
of silver coins led to the issuance of bills of credit, backed by the
colonial treasuries, and also to the establishment of banking
institutions, which issued bank notes upon their own funds.
The lack of confidence in the bank notes spread to the colonial
credit bills; as a result people were unwilling to accept these
paper notes save at a large discount. The consequent depre-
ciation of the currency medium was the cause of great com-
mercial disturbances which ended in the passage by parliament
of several stringent laws forbidding the colonies to circulate
credit money.

In addition to the thrice profitable circle of rum, slaves, mo-
lasses, and rum of the Yankee skippers, another lucrative occupa-
tion of the sailors of New England was whaling.   New Bedford,
Nantucket, and Marblehead became famous for the hardy sea-
men they produced, who hunted the whale with enormous profit
from the New England coasts until they had to pursue them to
the Arctic seas.   The New England shipyards turned out many

COLONIAL SHIP BUILDING

Sea-going vessels were constructed in New England after 1630, and
were soon sufficient for home needs. Planks of oak and tall, straight
masts of fir could be had almost at the water's edge, while everywhere
was pitch pine for the making of tar and turpentine. The colonists soon
became excellent shipwrights.

trading vessels to carry to England the Virginian tobacco, the
rice of South Carolina, the rum of Rhode Island, the salt fish of
Massachusetts, and the leather and wheat of the central colonies.

The New Englanders were mostly Congregationalists in
religion.   Each church was independent, elected its own officers,
and determined its own policy and beliefs.   They were prin-
cipally Calvinists and intolerant of all other sects, though after
a time this intolerance wore away.   The witchcraft delusion,

whose crisis occurred at Salem in 1692, has seemed to many to have been an outgrowth of the gloomy religious view of the Puritans. That this is not entirely true is shown by the frequency with which other nations and periods of history have witnessed the belief in and persecution of witchcraft. The New England outbreak may be accounted for as the result of a state of mental depression caused by epidemics of smallpox which severely ravaged the colony, and by the fear of a general uprising of the Indians, urged on and directed by the Canadian

Reason for the Outbreak of the Salem Witchcraft Delusion

WITCH HOUSE, SALEM, MASS.

French, with whom the colonies were then at war. Stories of the most impossible kind were set in circulation against men and women, whose only offence seems to have been a peculiarity of disposition or of age, and a special court was organized to pronounce sentence of death upon them, for their guilt was believed in from the first. For a time the colony was stricken with a species of insanity, and over a score of persons were executed or punished with the utmost severity before the colony came to its senses.

A great awakening of religious enthusiasm took place in New England in the first half of the eighteenth century. At

The " Great Awakening "

this time the Wesleyan revival in England was creating a new interest in religion. The same spirit was introduced into America by Whitefield, an associate of the Wesleys, who made twenty-five thousand converts in his short missionary labors in America. The literature of colonial New England is filled with the deep religious feeling of the Puritans, and it is characteristic of their familiarity with the Bible that the pages of their annals are filled with the phrases of the Old Testament.

128. New York under the Dutch and English. — The colony established in the new world by the Dutch was more for commercial than political purposes, and what political institutions were set up there were closely modelled after those of Holland. This state, the most important of the Dutch Confederacy, consisted of a number of commercial cities, each with its charter from the Count of Holland giving it extensive rights. The Count's authority in the city was exercised by an appointed officer, the *schout* whose duties were to call the attention of the city council to offences committed in the city and to execute its laws. In the country districts the lord or his vassals ruled in the same manner as they had done through the middle ages, by the feudal system. The Dutch were Protestants, members of the Calvinistic Dutch Reformed Church, which closely resembles the Presbyterian, both in doctrine and government. The war for independence from Spain stimulated Dutch commerce, for the Dutch carried on a profitable illegitimate trade with Spanish colonial ports, and even seized a part of the Portuguese island empire, which Portugal, weakened by her annexation to Spain, could no longer hold. As Holland grew in wealth the social standards of the country rose rapidly. Universities were established in nearly every city, which became centers of learning for all Europe. These conditions prevailed in the country, which, until 1664, kept separated the groups of English American colonies.

In 1609 Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, while searching for a sea route

through America to the East Indies, sailed into New York harbor and up the river now bearing his name, as far as the site of Albany. Dutch traders soon came annually to trade with the Indians, and within five years commercial posts were established on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (now Albany, N. Y.). In 1626 the Dutch West India Company purchased land on Manhattan Island from the Indians and began the erection of a town, which they called New Amsterdam. Their relations with the Indians were for the most part of a friendly nature, and for this reason the Dutch prospered in the fur-trade.

SITE OF NEW YORK CITY IN 1609. HENRY HUDSON'S SHIP IN NEW YORK HARBOR

The political institutions of Holland were transplanted to meet the needs of the colonists. The towns had their *schout* appointed by the West India Company, and a council of *schepens* chosen from among the substantial citizens. This measure of self-government was the result of considerable political agitation upon the part of the colonists, since the company wished to rule absolutely by means of a governor sent from Holland. The country districts were granted to wealthy members of the company in huge feudal estates, over which the landholders or *patroons* ruled with all the power of feudal nobles. The last two governors used very arbitrary measures, refusing, until the people were thoroughly aroused, to call any sort of repre-

Government of the New Netherlands

sentative body, and banishing all those who dared to criticize them. The policy of these governors in the matter of Indian wars and in their relations with the English in Connecticut involved them in continual quarrels with their people and forced the realization home to England that she must no longer tolerate this hostile territory which split apart her colonial groups in America and opened up to hostile nations a tempting approach to the interior of the new world. Meanwhile English settlers were coming closer to the Dutch settlements on Long Island and in western Connecticut. Finally an English fleet appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam in 1664, and Stuyvesant, the violent and arbitrary Dutch governor, was forced to surrender the colony to the English. In fact the people were more than ready to welcome the coming of the freer English institutions.

New Amsterdam possessed the best harbor on the coast and the Hudson formed an excellent means of communication with fur-trading Indians. Furthermore the Dutch colony was the only gap in the English control of the Atlantic seaboard. For these reasons the conquest of the New Netherlands was of immense importance to the development of colonial England. The new governor, Nicholls, after consulting with an assembly of the settlers, issued a code of laws called the Duke's Laws, in honor of the new proprietor, the Duke of York. These laws

provided for local government on the English model. A town meeting was to be held annually at which a constable and eight overseers should be elected. Several towns were grouped together to form a judicial district, over which a sheriff was to preside, and since these districts later developed into counties, New York had both systems of local government — the township system of Massachusetts and the county system of Virginia.[1]

[1] This double, or mixed, system of local government spread first to the other middle colonies, and in its essentials is now in use in all the states of the Union. In the beginning it was a cause of much confusion in local government.

Although by the Duke's Laws the settlers were given the right of holding local offices, the administration of the central government of the colony was restricted to the governor and his council, there being no provision for a representative assembly. After years of popular discontent the governor called together an assembly of eighteen delegates, chosen by the people, and this body adopted a Charter of Liberties, which provided that the assembly must levy all taxes and share in the making of laws.

The accession of James II brought hardship to New York as well as to New England. James II annulled the Charter of Liberties, refused to permit the assembly to meet, and finally joined New York to New England under the rule of Andros. At the news of the outbreak of the revolution against James, Jacob Leisler, an energetic merchant of New York, assumed the governorship, drove out Andros' deputy, and proclaimed William of Orange king. Leisler was too fanatical for the easy-going New Yorkers. They succeeded in discrediting him with William III, who appointed another governor to supersede the deposed Andros. Leisler was declared a traitor and executed, yet his name should be remembered because, while in power, he called together the first general congress of the American colonies for the purpose of organizing some defence against the raids by the Indians and French.

Leisler's Rebellion

While the accession of William to the English throne had restored representative government in the colonies, it also involved the mother country in a war between Louis XIV and the Netherlands; and with the mother countries at war it is not surprising that the English engaged in an intercolonial war with the French and their Indian allies, which lasted for three quarters of a century. In Europe, tangling diplomacy and changing alliances produced four distinct wars between England and France during this period. In the intervals between these wars the mother countries were nominally at peace; but in America the colonists knew no peace, for the Indian allies of both nations spread fear in the border settlements. The first phase of the

The Early French and Indian Wars

A CHART SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL MATTERS TO BE REMEMBERED ABOUT THE INTERCOLONIAL WARS, 1689–1763

AMERICAN NAME	EUROPEAN WAR	DATES	EVENTS	TREATY	TERMS
King William's 1st French and Indian	Palatinate, caused by Louis XIV's designs upon the Palatinate and the Netherlands	1689–97	Burning of Schenectady Campaigns in the Palatinate in Germany	Ryswick	No territorial gains
Queen Anne's 2nd French and Indian	Spanish Succession caused by the attempt to put a grandson of Louis XIV on the Spanish throne	1701–13	Seizure of Acadia by England, also of Gibraltar	Utrecht	England gained Acadia (Nova Scotia), Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay territory
King George's 3rd French and Indian	Austrian Succession England drawn into an alliance with Austria against Prussia and France	1744–48	Seizure of Louisburg by New England troops Wonderful campaigns by Frederick the Great of Prussia win him territory in Germany	Aix-la-Chapelle	All conquered territory restored
The French and Indian 1754–1763	Seven Years' War Hostilities between the colonists and unsettled political problems in Europe caused this war	1756–63	The English capture all French posts in America, and in alliance with Frederick the Great aid him to victory in Germany. The battle of Plassey gives India to England	Paris	All French territory east of the Mississippi ceded to England and Louisiana to Spain. England received Florida in exchange for Cuba which she had captured during the war

war was indecisive and was marked by Indian raids. Although a peace was made at Ryswick, the colonists remained hostile to each other and were soon fighting again in Queen Anne's War. New England troops captured Acadia, and this gain was conceded in the Treaty of Utrecht. During the interval between this war and the one succeeding a number of attacks were made by the Indians on exposed settlements. During King George's War the colonists captured the strong fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island; but as England had lost many valuable posts in India to the French during the same war, she was glad to assent to the terms of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which restored to either side the conquests of the war. To the Americans the relinquishment of Louisburg after the New Englanders had put forth such an effort in its capture seemed a betrayal of their interests, a further proof of England's selfish policy toward her colonies; but a broader view of the question shows that England was entirely justified in making this surrender. Soon after this war France began the erection of a chain of forts along her frontier, — namely the Great Lakes and the Ohio country, — and there came into conflict with the advance of the English colonizing movement.

129. The End of New France. — For over fifty years far-sighted Englishmen had from time to time urged upon the home government the necessity for preparation against the final struggle with the French for the mastery of the North American continent. In numbers the English outclassed the Frenchmen nearly twenty to one, their government was freer, their habits of life and industries more settled and civilized, yet in certain respects the struggle between the two nations in America was an even one. While colonial governors sent from England had petitioned vainly for governmental action in defence, the French had proceeded systematically to establish trading posts and forts at strategic points along the Great Lakes, to build war vessels for use on Lake Champlain, and to incite the Indians against the English colonists. The French explorer, Comparison of the Antagonists

Bienville, was sent to take possession of the Ohio valley for France, which he pretended to accomplish by burying in the banks of the river metal plates on which were engraved the words of a vainglorious proclamation annexing to New France all lands touched by the Ohio and its branches. The French, thus, were first in the field, and had the further advantage of being able to make the English attack them; moreover, their military forces were under the central authority of the governor-general of Canada and were always effective, whereas the disorganization of the English forces was at the outset complete, first, because of the undependable character of the colonial levies and, second, the inadequacy of the generals whom England sent to command them. The first defeat was caused by a deplorable selfishness on the part of several colonies, such as New Jersey, which refused to bear any part of the burden of the French wars because their own borders were not threatened with invasion. It was also due to the lack of an effective union between the colonies, which promoted jealousies between them.

AMERICA AT THE OPENING OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

The need of a closer union between the colonies had been recognized by Leisler, William Penn, and others, in the seventeenth century, but as the eighteenth century progressed it seemed a hopeless task to overcome the prejudices and rivalries

of the various colonies. To the merchant of Boston the Virginia planter was still almost a foreigner. Commercial and boundary disputes were both common and bitter, so much so that one writer of that time thought that civil war would follow if Great Britain were to relinquish her control. In 1754, just as the war clouds were gathering, a meeting of several colonial governors and men of affairs was held at Albany to conclude stronger treaties of alliance with the Iroquois and to consider what might be done toward the unification of the colonies. At this meeting a plan, largely the work of Benjamin Franklin, was offered which provided for the establishment of a central government consisting of a grand council and a governor-general. The grand council was to be composed of a number of representatives selected by each colonial legislature, the number from each to be in proportion to the taxes paid by the colony, and was to have the powers of taxation, maintenance of the army, appointment of civil officers, and legislation — subject to the royal governor-general, who was to have general executive powers. This plan, if it had been adopted, would have set up a self-sustaining federal government, and not a mere league of colonies; but the opinions of the time were opposed to it. The colonial legislatures hardly gave it respectful consideration, and the royal governors rejected it contemptuously.

Franklin's "Albany Plan of Colonial Union"

The inadequacy of the English commanders was due to their inability to rate the colonial officers correctly and to their unwillingness to learn the methods of warfare necessary to overcome the tactics of the French and Indians. Washington was sent by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia to convey to the commanders of the French forts, Le Boeuf and Venango, in western Pennsylvania the claim of England to the territory they were occupying, and later to seize the strategic position at the juncture of the Allegheny and Monongahela, but he was unable to hold Fort Necessity, which he had thrown up hastily to protect himself from French attack, and surrendered his garrison. This skirmish was the prelude to a world-wide war between

The Last French and Indian War

England and France and their respective allies, which was fought in the forests of the new world, over the historic battle-fields of Germany, and under the burning sun of India. The French were dislodged from every fortress they had owned in America, among them Ticonderoga, Louisburg, and Quebec, and the Peace of Paris in 1763 recognized the cession by France to Eng-land of all her possessions east of the Mississippi and of the territory of Louisi-ana to Spain.

Population of New York

AMERICA AT THE CLOSE OF THE
SEVEN YEARS' WAR

130. The Middle Colonies in the Eighteenth Century. — At the end of these wars the population of New York was one hundred fifty thousand, of whom the larger part were descendants of the Dutch and the rest descended from the English settlers, who were scattered over the western end of Long Island, on Manhattan Island, and in occasional villages and farms on both sides of the Hudson as far as Albany and for a short distance up the Mohawk. The principal occupations were agriculture and the fur trade, in which fortunes were easily made. Many an adventurous young man worked his way into the Indian country by canoe, carrying along a barrel of rum with which to tempt the natives to bring in furs. Befuddled by the rum, the Indians were easily induced to exchange furs worth a small fortune for a few paltry trinkets. Returning to Albany, the trader made up a raft of timber and floated himself

and his belongings down to New York, where the timber and furs brought ready money. Manufacturing was almost entirely lacking in the middle colonies after the English conquest of New York, but New York City became the central point for the exchange of the commodities of the other colonies.

The important position held by trade had an influence on social conditions. It was not considered beneath a man of standing in the city to engage in trade. The aristocrats of

Social Life in New York

MOWING GRASS IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

New York, therefore, were not mere landed proprietors, although there were some of that class along the Hudson, but men who worked hard and constantly to build up their fortunes. The people were fonder of gayety than the New Englanders and there were many social events in New York. Lining the wide and amply shaded streets, low houses of brick and stone stood gable end to the street with many-colored, tiled roofs, upon which was usually a railed platform whereon the householder and his family might sit in the evening. Within were wainscoted walls, hardwood or sanded floors, solid mahogany furniture, and a brave display of silver plate and pewter ware. The houses of

the patroons were larger and were surrounded with beautiful gardens, but house furnishings were much the same as in the homes of the wealthier city folk. The patroon system hindered the development of the colony, because settlers preferred to take up farms to which they could obtain a clear title, instead of living as feudal dependents. New Jersey was the gainer for this reason, and the farmers of New Jersey from small beginnings were soon recognized as men of importance in that colony.

Religion   The established church of New York after the English conquest was the Episcopalian, but there was a strong feeling against having any connection between church and state, which manifested itself in popular agitation against paying the bishop's salary from the common funds. The Dutch Reformed Church was very strong and especially important in building up the rudiments of a public school system. Each town had its school, under the supervision of the pastor of the village church, supported by the contributions of the public. The English conquest had a deadening effect on public education, because the English government was unwilling to support educational institutions that were under the support or supervision of a dissenting church. When the English awoke to the need of public schools, early in the eighteenth century, the Dutch were unwilling to send their children to such schools for fear that they would become Englishmen in speech and ideals. By the middle of the century, however, this racial rivalry had been nearly eliminated and institutions for higher learning offered a liberal education, among them King's College, which is now Columbia University.

A Quaker Experiment in Government   The other middle colonies were largely the result of Quaker enterprise. A Quaker settlement on the east bank of the Delaware became the nucleus for the colony of West Jersey, while Pennsylvania was wholly the outcome of the work of William Penn, a distinguished Quaker. Penn was the son of a prominent English admiral. He adopted the extreme dissenting views of the Friends, thus showing his indifference to the chance of

political success, which at that time was possessed exclusively by followers of the Anglican Church.   He inherited a claim for six-teen thousand pounds against the English government, and after eleven years' waiting induced Charles II to make him a grant of forty thousand square miles west of the Delaware, including the lands on the west shore of Delaware Bay, which had been settled by the Swedes, con-quered by the Dutch, and added to the possessions of England after the conquest of the New Netherlands. In 1682 the city of Philadelphia (Bro-therly Love) was founded, and Penn came over to establish the colony upon a firm founda-tion.   Penn gave to the colony a constitution, known as the Charter of Privileges, which provided for an assembly to be chosen annually by the tax-payers to levy taxes and share in the making of laws, for a governor and council to be appointed by the proprietor, for religious toleration and the civil rights of Englishmen.

WILLIAM PENN

Pennsylvania Charter of Privileges

During the eighty years of the separate development of this Quaker colony, the influence of Penn was of utmost importance, long after his death, in spreading humane and enlightened ideas.   Instead of the long list of capital offences usual at that time there were only two in Pennsylvania.   The religious tolera-tion, which soon became a real religious freedom, encouraged settlers, and the rich farming lands of the valleys of eastern Pennsylvania proved more inviting than the rocky fields of austere New England.   The friendship between Penn and the king prevented an attack upon the charter of Pennsylvania at

Policy and Influence of Penn

the time when all the other colonies were being disciplined, while friendly treatment of the Indians and the supremacy of the English-loving Iroquois among the red men of· that region prevented the Indian wars from which other colonies suffered. It was fortunate that the colony was at peace, as the Quakers disapproved of war, even refusing to defend themselves in time of war. Although many English settlers of other faiths were attracted to Penn's colony, the Quakers remained the ruling element until Revolutionary times because of their wealth and prominence.

Social Conditions in Pennsylvania

In the houses of these Quakers were many negro houseservants, but the Friends disapproved of slavery as an institution, and their treatment of their slaves was exceedingly kind, even to the extent of granting them their freedom. The social life of Pennsylvania was centered in Philadelphia, which, by the middle of the eighteenth century, had become the rival of Boston as the most prominent city of the colonies. Much of the orderliness of the city was due to the work of Benjamin Franklin, who made the city his home in 1726. The streets were wide, clean, paved, and lighted. The houses were substantially built in the English style. The commerce of the colony centered on the quays along the river front. The broad-minded Friends were in advance of their times in the treatment of the insane and sick, as they established hospitals for both classes of unfortunates. Penn granted a charter to a public school in 1711, which still flourishes in Philadelphia under the name of the

FRANKLIN AS A YOUNG MAN

Penn Charter School. Franklin made plans for the establish-
ment of a college which grew into the University of Pennsyl-
vania, and because of the activity of Franklin, Philadelphia
also became the rival of Boston in literature.

131. Summary; the Colonies in 1760. — At the close of the The Colonies
French and Indian Wars, England possessed all of North
America east of the Mississippi. The settlements commenced

PENN MAKING HIS FAMOUS TREATY WITH THE INDIANS, "THIS
TREATY SHALL NEVER BE BROKEN"

with the southeastern coast of Maine, extended for a consider-
able distance up the Merrimac River, thinly covered the states
of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, followed the
shores of the Hudson and lower Mohawk, occupied East and
West Jersey, which had been joined in the eighteenth century,
filled the valleys of eastern Pennsylvania and the shores of the
Delaware and Chesapeake bays, and were spread thinly over
the lowlands of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Between
the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi were a few
widely separated trading posts and forts.

The principal occupations were lumbering, agriculture, and commerce in the New England colonies; trading and agriculture in the middle colonies; and rice and tobacco culture in the southern. The principal towns were Boston, Philadelphia, New York, and Charleston — in each of which the colonial life of that section of the colonies centered. There were in general five social classes: first, an aristocracy of wealth, family, or ability; second, a middle class of merchants, traders, and small

PENN'S MANSION — PHILADELPHIA

farmers; third, free white laborers; fourth, indentured white servants; and fifth, negro slaves — but there was no fixed line between most of these classes. Men who had begun their colonial careers as indentured servants, after serving out their term and beginning again in another colony, became the leaders and members of the first of these social classes in their new home. A beginning of public education had been made, and Harvard, Yale, King's, the University of Pennsylvania, and Princeton furnished opportunities for higher learning.

There were three forms of local government: the town system of New England, the county in the South, and a composite

form in the middle colonies. Originally there had been three forms of central government: the royal colony, in which the governor was appointed by the crown; the proprietary, in which he was the appointee of the proprietor, and the charter, in which he was elected by the colonists.[1] In each kind of colony there was a popular assembly elected by the people which had some control over taxation and legislation. The principle of religious toleration was established in all the colonies, while complete religious freedom was enjoyed in a few. There was much greater political liberty in America during the eighteenth century than in England, and the morals of the people were higher, even if their manners were less polished. The French and Indian Wars accustomed the colonists to look to each other for defence and advice and brought to England new problems of colonial administration, with whose working out the study of American history is peculiarly concerned.

132. A Summary of Early European History. — A modern historian has invented an apt illustration of the field of history by substituting for the hundreds of thousands of years during which mankind has lived on this earth a dial of twelve hours, each representing a term of approximately twenty thousand years. Each minute, then, would be equal to over three hundred years, and each second to over five years. Pursuing this fancy further, it is found that for over eleven hours written history was not made; at half-past eleven men began in the Nile valley to associate together to form the first rudimentary states; at a trifle before seven minutes of twelve the Greek civilization reached its flower; a minute later Rome ruled the world; another minute and Christianity had become the religion of the empire; another and Islam was being spread by the sword. Empire and papacy struggled for over half a minute; nationality arose, the rebirth of artistic and literary excellence took place, the Protestant Reformation — all lasted less than a minute.

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[1] Massachusetts Bay Colony was an exception to this classification. By the charter of 1690, her governor was appointed by the crown.

Yet it is this half-hour of history which is of vital importance to the beginner in historical study. It is necessary for any one who wishes to understand present day conditions, to learn how mankind developed. The story of the storm of revolution in America and France and the thrilling details of the growth of the modern world have little meaning for one who understands nothing of the long struggle against privileged classes, religious intolerance, and economic distress. There is a certain continuity in the world's history before the French Revolution: thereafter a new Europe came forward as the inspiration both for old Europe and America.

Influenced by the teachings of the peoples of the Orient and of Egypt, the Greeks brought to a high degree of excellence their knowledge of art, architecture, literature, and philosophical thought. By their commercial dealings with their colonies throughout the Mediterranean they spread their civilization abroad. Conquered by the more practical Romans, they in turn were the conquerors, and there was transfused into the blood of Rome the intellectual and artistic refinement of Greece. Educated by the Greeks, the Romans became the masters and law-givers of Europe, until, weakened by economic errors and by a corrupt government, they surrendered the control of Western Europe into the hands of the more virile Germans, who built several small states upon the soil formerly ruled by the Roman Empire. From these states came the germs of the modern European kingdoms. During the period of transition from Roman dominion to the rise of national states, the Roman Catholic Church became the strongest factor in preserving medieval society from relapsing into barbarism. With the growth of national consciousness, the spiritual and political needs of society changed, and the medieval institutions declined in influence. The medieval church lost much of its authority over civil affairs, and the feudal organization of society was abandoned. Thereafter a new influence seemed to mold history. Art, science, literature, geographical knowledge, which had

been slumbering for centuries, gradually put forth new energy, and, almost at the same time, a widespread movement for higher spiritual ideals began, which found its flower in the reformation, both within and without the Church. The enfranchisement of man in theological matters led to a desire for greater political liberty as well, and the growing colonial ventures of England first successfully tested democratic government. Yet on the continent of Europe the wasteful wars and extravagant excesses of the rulers were brewing a storm which was to sweep away the days of privilege, and usher in the modern era of constantly developing freedom. The world has grown somewhat better than it was in the earliest ages. The lives of millions of human beings are fuller because of the ideals and achievements of the men of the past.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of North America show in different colors, or by different markings, the Spanish, French, Dutch, Swedish, and English spheres of influence in America. On a map of North America show as above the various additions to English territory in America in 1713 and 1763; also the principal English settlements, towns, and means of communication. Indicate the strategic points in the colonies. On a map showing the various English colonies indicate appropriately the original form of government provided for each, and all changes therein, together with dates. Show the boundary lines established by the charters. Discuss the political and economic effects of the cultivation of tobacco. Describe Virginian life in the eighteenth century. Discuss the witchcraft delusion in New England and elsewhere. Describe old Dutch customs in the New Netherlands. What were the political and social features of the Iroquois confederacy? Describe Indian customs and characteristics. Make a comparison of the Quaker and Puritan in the following respects: religion, government, treatment of the Indians. That elements have minor European peoples contributed. to our civilization?

(The following topics are to be found in Thwaites, *The Colonies:* Longmans.) Early explorations and settlements before Jamestown, 21–55; Virginia, 65–77; Maryland, 81–84; Carolinas, 89–95; Georgia, 187–205; Plymouth, 113–124; Massachusetts Bay, 124–40; The New England Confederation, 140–50; (also Connecticut, New Haven, and Rhode Island); Provincial New England, Chapter VIII; Middle colonies, 195–232.

(The following topics are to be found in Hart, *Contemporaries*, Vol. II.) Source readings, viz.: New England, 35–63; Middle colonies, 65–87; Southern colonies, 90–124; Colonial government — Principles of English

control, 127–150; The colonial governor, 153–69; Colonial assemblies, 171–84; Colonial courts, 188–220; Life of the people, 224–40; Commerce and currency, 244–254; Intellectual life, 255–72; Religious life, 276–89; Slavery and servitude, 291–310; The French colonies, 312–24; The Indians, 327–34; Intercolonial wars, 337–49; The French and Indian War, 352–69.

(The following topics are to be found in Hart, *Contemporaries*, Vol. I: Macmillan.) Source readings, viz.: Reasons for colonization, 145–67; Regulation of colonization, 171–84; Southern colonies — Virginia, 200–42; Maryland, 247–72; The Carolinas, 275–83; Southern colonial life, 285–310; New England — Conditions, 313–35; Plymouth, 340–63; Early Massachusetts, 366–93; Rhode Island, 397–407; Connecticut and New Haven, 410–423 New Hampshire and Maine, 426–35; New England's development, 439–63; New England life, 467–512; Middle colonies — Conditions, 517–525; New York, 529–44; Pennsylvania and Delaware, 548–59; New Jersey, 563–73; Life in the middle colonies, 576–86.

OTHER SPECIAL REFERENCE READINGS

Fiske, *American Revolution*, The Albany Plan, Vol. I, pp. 1–10.
Channing, *American History*, The Pilgrims, Vol. I. pp. 293–304.
Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America*, William Penn, Vol. II, pp. 109–39.
Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, The European Background of the Intercolonial Wars, Vol. I, pp. 30–33, 34–49, 60–79, 80–100, 101–16.
Coman, *Industrial History of the United States* (1911), Colonial Commerce, and Industry, pp. 1–83: Macmillan.
Callendar, *Economic History of the United States*, pp. 6, 9, 12, 15, 20, 34, 44, 51: Ginn and Co.
Bogart, *Economic History of the United States*, pp. 49–60, 78–83: Longmans.
Dewey, *Financial History of the United States*, pp. 2–32: Longmans.

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*. The spread of Colonization, 1600–1700, p. 128; Principal Seats of War in Europe, 1700–1721, p. 129; Europe about 1740, p. 131; Principal Seats of War in Europe, 1740–63, p. 132; Treaty Adjustments, 1713–63, p. 133; The Struggle for Colonial Dominion, 1700–63, p. 136; Colonies, Dependencies, and Trade Routes pp. 179–80; Localities in Western Europe Connected with American History, p. 184; Localities in England Connected with American History, p. 185; The Indians in the United States, p. 188; Reference Map of the New England Colonies, p. 198; European Exploration and Settlement in the United States, 1513–1776, p. 191; Reference Map of the Middle Colonies, p. 192; Reference Map of the Southern Colonies, p. 193.

APPENDIX I

IMPORTANT EVENTS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

B.C.
5000 First flowering of Egyptian culture
3500 Supremacy of the Babylonian City-states: beginnings of culture
      in the Aegean
2200 Cretan civilization
2000 Ancestors of the Romans invade Italy
1900 First Babylonian Empire
1500 Height of Egyptian Empire: Phoenician colonization: Mycenean
      Age in Greece
1000 Kingdom of Israel founded
753 Traditional founding of Rome
621 Draco, the Lawgiver
600 Second Babylonian Empire
594 Solon
508 Clisthenes
492–479 War between Persia and Greece
461–431 Age of Pericles
431–404 Peloponnesian War
404–371 Spartan Supremacy
371–362 Theban Supremacy
359–336 Philip of Macedon
336–323 Alexander the Great
396–146 Roman wars of conquest
133–27 The change from republic to empire

B.C. **27**–*A.D.* **476** Nominal period of the Empire of Rome
476 Traditional date of the Fall of Rome
493 Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy
622 The Hegira
732 Charles Martel repulses the Mohammedans at Poitiers (Tours)
800 Charles the Great crowned Emperor of the West
842 Strasburg oaths
843 Treaty of Verdun
870 Treaty of Mersen
901 Death of Alfred the Great
962 Otto the Great crowned Emperor

987   Election of Hugh Capet
1065–1106   Reign of Henry IV of Germany: Contest with Gregory VII
1066   Norman Conquest of England
1096   First Crusade
1099–1144   Second Crusade
1122   Concordat of Worms
1142   Abelard
1154–1183   Contest between the Emperor and the Lombard towns
1154–1189   Reign of Henry II of England
1170   Saint Dominic
1182–1226   St. Francis of Assisi
1187–1192   Third Crusade
1200–1215   Height of Papal power: Pontificate of Innocent III
1208   Albigensian Crusade
1215   Granting of Magna Carta
1232–1307   Edward I of England
1250   Close of the Medieval Empire
1264–1321   Dante
1265   Simon de Montfort's Parliament
1275   Roger Bacon
1295   Model Parliament
1296   Clericos Laicos
1302   The Estates General of 1302
1304–1370   Petrarch
1305–1370   Babylonian Captivity of the Church
1320–1384   Career of Wyclif
1346   Beginning of Hundred Years' War: Crécy
1348   Black Death
1350   Statutes of Provisors
1351   Statutes of Laborers
1356   Poiters
1360   Peace of Bretigny
1378–1414   Great Schism
1381   Peasant's Revolt
1413–1422   Henry V of England
1414–1417   Council of Constance
1420   Treaty of Troyes
1429–1431   Joan of Arc
1453   Close of Hundred Years' War.   Fall of Constantinople
1455–1485   Wars of the Roses
1467–1477   Career of Charles the Bold of Burgundy
1467–1536   Life of Erasmus
1469   Marriage of Isabella of Castile to Ferdinand of Aragon
1475–1543   Copernicus
1475–1576   Height of the Renaissance
1476   Introduction of Printing into England
1492   Death of Lorenzo the Magnificent

1492 Discovery of America
1491–1498 Career of Savonarola
1509–1547 Henry VIII of England
1509–1564 Life of Calvin
1519 Imperial election of Charles V
1520 Luther burns the Canon Law
1521 The Edict of Worms
1526 The Edict of Speyer
1529 Origin of the word Protestant
1529–1558 Protestant revolt in England
1534–1538 Founding of the Jesuit Order
1545–1563 The Council of Trent
1553–1558 Mary Tudor and the Catholic Restoration
1555 Peace of Augsburg
1556–1598 Phillip II of Spain
1558–1603 Reign of Elizabeth
1561–1626 Life of Francis Bacon
1564–1616 Life of Shakspeare
1566–1581 Revolt of the Netherlands
1572 The Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day
1587 Execution of Mary Queen of Scots
1588 Defeat of the Armada
1589–1610 Henry IV of France
1598 The Edict of Nantes
1603–1625 Reign of James I of England
1604 Hampton Court Conference
1606 Virginia Charter
1607 Founding of Jamestown
1608 The Establishment of French colony at Quebec
1609 The Virginia Company's Charter
1609 Discovery of the Hudson River
1618–1648 Thirty Years' War
1619 Introduction of Negro Slavery into America: first Legislature
          meets
1620 Plymouth Settlement
1625–1649 Reign of Charles I of England
1626 Settlement of New Amsterdam
1628 Petition of Right
1629–1630 Massachusetts Bay Settlement at Salem
1639 Fundamental Orders of Connecticut
1640 The meeting of Long Parliament
1642 Beginning of Civil War
1643 Formation of the United Colonies of New England
1643–1715 Reign of Louis XIV
1648 Peace of Westphalia
1648 Pride's Purge
1649 Execution of Charles I

1649 . Maryland Toleration Act
1651   Navigation Act
1653–1658   Cromwell's Protectorate
1660   Restoration of Charles II
1670   Secret Treaty of Dover
1682   Philadelphia founded
1688   The Glorious Revolution
1689–1697   King William's War: Palatinate War
1701–1713   Queen Anne's War: War of the Spanish Succession
1744–1748   King George's War: War of the Austrian Succession
1754–1763   French and Indian War

APPENDIX II

A SELECT LIST OF BOOKS INCLUDING THOSE REFERRED TO IN THE SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READINGS

Adams ....Civilization During the Middle Ages....Scribners
Adams ....Growth of the French Nation..........Macmillan
Adams ....Select Documents of English Constitu-
tional History....................Macmillan
Andrews..........Alexander the Great.................Putnam
Anglo-Saxon
Chronicle...Macmillan

Bates and Coman...English History told by English Poets..Macmillan
Beard.............Introduction to the English Historians..Macmillan
Bede..............Ecclesiastical History................Macmillan
Bemont and Monod Mediæval History....................Henry Holt & Co.
Bogart............Economic History of the United States..Longmans
Botsford..........A History of the Ancient World.......Macmillan
Botsford..........A Source-book of Ancient History......Macmillan
Botsford..........Development of the Athenian Con-
stitution........................Longmans
Bourne...........The Teaching of History and Civics....Longmans
Breasted.........History of Ancient Egyptians.........Scribners
Bryant...........Translation of the Odyssey...........Any edition
Bryce............The Holy Roman Empire.............Macmillan
Bury.............History of Greece...................Macmillan

Callendar.........Economic History of the United States..Ginn and Co.
Cambridge Modern
History...Macmillan
Channing.........American History...................Macmillan
Channing and Hart. Guide to American History...........Ginn and Co.
Cheyney..........Short History of England............Ginn and Co.
Cheyney..........Readings in English History ....Ginn and Co.
Cheyney..........Social and Industrial History of England. Macmillan
Cheyney..........European Background of American
History..................... ..Harpers

Clodd..............Story of Primitive Man................Appleton
Colby..............Selections from the Sources of English
                      History........................Longmans
Coman............Industrial History of the United States..Macmillan
Curtler............Short History of English Agriculture....Oxford Press

Davis..............Readings in Ancient History...........Allyn & Bacon
Day...............History of Commerce.................Longmans
Dewey............Financial History of the United States..Longmans
Dodge and Preston..Private Life of Romans..............Sanborn
Du Pontet.........The Ancient World..................Longmans

Ely...............Evolution of Industrial Culture........Macmillan
Emerton...........Mediæval Europe.....................Ginn and Co.

Ferrero............The Greatness and Decline of Rome
                      5 vols...........................Putnam
Fordham..........Short History of English Rural Life.....Scribners
Fiske..............American Revolution.................Houghton Mifflin Co.
Fiske..............Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America..Houghton Mifflin Co.
Fling..............Source-book of Greek History ....D. C. Heath & Co.

Gardiner..........Atlas of English History...............Longmans
Goodspeed.........History of Babylonians and Assyrians...Scribners
Guerber...........Legends of the Middle Ages...........American Book Co.
Guhl and Koner....Life of the Greeks and Romans........Scribners
Gulick.............Life of the Ancient Greeks.............Appleton

Harpers...........Dictionary of Classical Antiquity.......Harpers
Hawes............Crete the Forerunner of Greece........Harpers
Henderson.........History of Germany in the Middle Ages.Macmillan
Henderson.........Select   Historical   Documents   of   the
                      Middle Ages.....................Macmillan
Hill...............Liberty Documents...................Longmans
History Syllabus for
   Secondary Schools....................................D. C. Heath & Co.
Hogarth...........Ancient East........................Henry Holt
Holm.............History of Greece....................Macmillan
How and Leigh.....A   History   of   Rome   to   the   Death   of
                      Caesar........................Longmans

Jesop.............The Coming of the Friars.............Putnam
Johnson...........Europe in the Sixteenth Century.......Rivington
Johnston..........Private Life of Romans...............Scott Foresman
Joyce.............Old Celtic Romances.................Longmans

Kendall...........Source-book of English History ....Macmillan

Krapp.............In Oldest England...................Longmans
Knowlton..........Illustrated Topics for Ancient History..McKinley Pub. Co.

Lanciani...........Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome Houghton Mifflin Co.
London, Jack......Before Adam.......................Macmillan
Lytton............Harold, The Last of the Saxons.......Little, Brown & Co.

Mahaffy...........Old Greek Life......................American Book Co.
Mahaffy...........What have the Greeks done for Modern
                    Civilization?...................Putnam
Mason............Women's Share in Primitive Culture....Appleton
Munro...........Source-book of Roman History ....D. C. Heath & Co.
Munro...........History of the Middle Ages...........Appleton
Munro and Sellery..Medieval Civilization................Century
Myres.............The Dawn of History................Holt

Oman.............Seven Roman Statesmen.............Longmans
Oman.............The Dark Ages......................Rivingtons

Pelham............Outlines of Roman History...........Putnam

Robinson..........An Introduction to the History of
                    Western Europe.................Ginn and Co.
Robinson..........The Days of Alkibiades..............Longmans
Robinson..........Readings in European History........Ginn and Co.
Robinson and Beard.Development of Modern Europe.......Ginn and Co.
Robinson and Beard.Readings in Modern European History..Ginn and Co.

Seignobos........History of Ancient Civilization........Scribners
Seignobos........Mediæval Civilization................Scribners
Shepherd..........Historical Atlas.....................Henry Holt & Co.
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